

GAI International Academic Conferences Proceedings



Prague, Czech Republic
September 6-9, 2015



GAI International Academic Conferences
Proceedings

2015 Prague International Academic
Conference

September 6-9, 2015

Prague, Czech Republic

Hosted by
Global Academic Institute

ISBN: 978-0-9965808-1-6

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Enhancing Global Service Learning through Cultural Humility

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Abstract

Cultural empathy and understanding are critical elements impacting student Global Service Learning experiences, with most pre-trip and on-site training promoting superficial rather than deep understanding. A holistic country and cultural preparedness strategy will be presented, with the Hofstede Model highlighted as an enabling tool for pre-trip, concurrent, and post-trip understanding.

Background

As an educator who has facilitated Global Service Learning (GSL) I am familiar with its impact, and sometimes the transformational effect, upon students. However, I have growing concerns regarding the nature of GSL pertaining to the level of interaction between students and the community partner, and in particular the degree of competencies required for impactful experiences. Most GSL interactions with the local partners appear to be transactional and superficial, and are often limited to physical service activities that require little or no application of the academic capabilities of our students. This type of GSL experience promotes a feeling of contribution and reflects the good intentions of faculty and students, but is essentially tourism volunteerism. The limited scope of such engagements does not optimize the citizenship, personal, professional, or cognitive development potential offered by GSL, or best serve the community partner. At best such experiences contribute to a sense of global citizenship, at worst they contribute to isolationism caused by culture shock.

Meaningful GSL requires deep interaction with the local community partners and often the application of academic capabilities. The structuring of such projects is complex to ensure optimal learning opportunities for students while providing positive impact upon the community requires pedagogical strategies on a pre-trip, during, and post-trip basis. Three elements in pre-trip preparedness are critical for deep interaction: the design of the project with community partners, the country and cultural readiness of students so that they can successfully engage with local partners, and the resolution of logistics considerations including language barriers. Managing the learning experience on-site and post-trip requires the construction of reflection exercises and assessment methodologies that build upon the experience and provide feedback loops for layered consideration.

While there is much to address regarding logistics, management of the partner relationship, and assessment methodologies, my concern rests with pre-trip and the carry-forward throughout the GSL experience, for if the pre-trip preparedness is weak, the recovery is difficult. I suggest preparation for GSL could be conceived from a holistic perspective, whereby students would be aware of the community partner's environment from a political, economic, historical, environmental, and cultural perspective. Preferably students would also be familiar with the principals of Service Learning, and be a proponent of community engagement from the 'with' rather than 'for' perspective. While the entire scope of engagement capabilities is recognized as being relevant, this paper addresses one aspect of preparedness for GSL, the development of the cultural and boundary crossing (Williams, 2002; Hora & Miller, 2011) capabilities by students so that they can effectively work with partners from sometimes radically different cultural milieus. A process for the intercultural adjustment process (Savicki, Adams, & Binder, 2008) for the on-site experience will also be explored.

A review of GSL literature indicates significant gaps pertaining to the structuring of cultural preparation, particularly with regards to methods and outcomes (Bringle, Hatcher, & Jones, 2011). Studies regarding the effectiveness of methodologies for embedding cultural capabilities through training are inconclusive. While some professional disciplines such as Medicine, Nursing, and Social Work have a body of work investigating the impact of culture upon the GSL experience, discussions are typically limited to strategies to reduce the effects of cultural shock. While the avoidance of culture shock is important, the focus should be upon a broader understanding of the impact of cultural capabilities upon student learning and comprehension and the effect of such capabilities to the relationship with the community partners.

Models of intercultural competencies provide frameworks for building the attitudinal and knowledge awareness and skills from which students can build positive and open experiences (Deardorff, 2012). An analysis of the structure for cultural training should address the following variables: the timing (re-trip or in country), the nature (the models addressed and the pedagogy employed), and the inclusion of assessment regarding culture (included or not, self-reflective or not, academic applications, on-site or pre-trip, and the impact upon the community).

The Hofstede model of cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2010) is of particular interest for GSL preparation, due to its widespread adoption and the ease in which cultural comparisons between countries may be accessed through free on-line websites. Students may compare their culture on five key dimensions with the host country, for example Canada and Peru, or the UK and South Africa. The model describes the effects of a society's culture on the values of its members, and how these values relate to behavior as reflected through six values, including power and the value of individualism. If applied properly, the understanding of these cultural dimensions should increase success in understanding behaviors and attitudes, allowing students to moderate their reaction, thereby reducing confusion, frustration, and potential conflicts (Hofstede, 2001).

This paper is relevant as it seeks to inform the manner in which faculty structure country preparedness for GSL experiences with greater contact and more complex interactions with the international community partner. The process of understanding the parameters of cultural dimensions for the home and host culture, clarifies the lenses through which visiting students perceive the actions and their personal interactions with the host country (Gegersen-Hermans & Pusch, 2012). The depth of understanding could contribute to the faster and more capable interaction with international community partners, and enable a better understanding for societal behaviors, and the logic for economic and political systems (Hofstede, 1980).

The Hofstede model will be introduced within the context a broader model for country and cultural preparation. The program will then be illustrated by referencing a GSL project by Canadian students in the Cook Islands. The ability of the students to understanding perplexing and ethically troubling (to them) interactions with members of a tribal culture was greatly enhanced through their reflection of the host people's behaviors within the context of the Hofstede model. Specific issues and incidents and student's reflections will be highlighted, with an emphasis on the contributions of the Hofstede model for the sense-making of perplexing interactions. Finally, I will explore potential empirical research which could be undertaken to measure the effectiveness of the intercultural competencies development process proposed in this paper.

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Applying the Fraud Triangle Model to the Budget Process

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Abstract

This article posits that the Fraud Triangle Model can be applied to the budget process. The article starts by describing the three factors that allow for fraud to occur at an individual level: opportunity, pressure, and rationalization. It then explains how, at an organizational level, these three factors become management control, leadership, and corporate culture. Subsequently, the article examines many of the common criticisms of the budget process through a fraud triangle prism, before discussing the linkages among the use of the budget as a management control tool, leadership, and organizational culture. Thereafter the article offers various recommendations for creating a budget process that is both efficient as well as effective, before drawing summary conclusions.

3D-Scapes Deliver New Decision-making Perspectives for Management and Economy

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Abstract

It is important to adapt alternative perspectives in order to make critical decisions. In economy, problems are interpreted through two-dimensional graphs and interpretation of strategies. In many cases, impressions of how something appears are perceived, without really touching or discovering it. Would a 3D animated image of an (in) visible subject help us to understand better? The 3DMM project group of the graduate study program 3D-Mind & Media at the Fresenius University of Applied Sciences in Cologne, Germany has approached this question and followed this target scientifically in various areas. Their 3D-Scapes present business methods or problems through defined parameters as a physical model. These models show a subjective reflection of a chronologic record. They may be applied effectively as reflection models in marketing or in human resources (HR) for example. Which parameters have to be identified to design 3D models of economic or social topics or problems? These are questions the project group pursues. The target is to answer the particular hypothesis of how relevant it could be for the future to design and present problems, methods, solutions and challenges in 3D. 3D-Scapes demonstrate possible triggers for future decision-making processes.

Keywords: 3D-Scapes, decision-making

Home Sweet Home: The Importance of Solitude and Home Life for Women Who Live Alone

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Abstract

The notion of being 'happily ever after' as a wife, mother and home-maker is a powerful cultural narrative and yet it is not the reality for the constantly growing number of women who live alone. Whilst politicians often talk about legislation to benefit 'hard-working families', this kind of rhetoric excludes and disenfranchises the experiences of working women (and men) who live alone.

The research aims to demonstrate that a woman living alone should be categorised as a family form in itself, and women do not need to necessarily choose the wife/mother narrative in order to lead fulfilling lives. There is a need for a more widely nuanced examination of women who live alone in order to bridge boundaries among fields of enquiry, and also among academics and the general public. The research explores the experience and representation of this rapidly growing sub-group of one-person households identified by Hall *et al* (1999) as female, metropolitan, managerial/professional, educated and mobile, on questions surrounding the identity of those who have been termed the 'new single women' (Whitehead, 2003), within the context of their leisure lives. It examined their daily lives and the leisure practices and activities they undertake, alongside their understandings of, and negotiations around, being 'women living alone'. Leisure diaries compiled by the participants provides rich collated data about what women who live alone do, where, and how. Finally, the research begins to interrogate the representation of them in popular culture, seeking to compare the experiences and narratives of the participants with images which claim to represent them, and to hear the participants' views on those images.

This poster focuses very particularly on the identity work of the participants, considering their everyday practices and how they relate to issues of class and feminine cultural capital. To do this I discuss their key central preoccupations which were their homes as 'sanctuary', incorporating Pink's (2004, p. 41) concept of 'home creativity', and their friendships as 'lifelines'.

Keywords: leisure; gender; one-person households, social construction; solo living; lone living; identity; family

Size and Determinants of the Fiscal Multipliers in Western Balkans: Comparing Croatia, Slovenia and Serbia

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Abstract

When estimating the size of fiscal multipliers, one has to consider various structural characteristics of the economies which directly or indirectly affect the transmission from the government stimuli to the economic activity. Thus, in this paper we use a ‘bucket approach’ to determination of the size of fiscal multipliers, which enables us to make presumptions on the size of fiscal multipliers, given the structural characteristics of selected Western Balkan economies – Croatia, Slovenia and Serbia. After this “non-empirical” approach we use the structural VAR framework to test our hypothesis derived from the “bucket approach”. Our results confirmed the hypotheses on the relative size of the multipliers between these three peer countries, with Croatia having the highest spending multiplier and Slovenia the lowest one.

JEL: E62, C32, H20, H30, H50

Key words: fiscal multipliers, Western Balkans, SVAR, bucket approach

The Effect of First-time & Repeat Customers' Overall Satisfaction of their Behavioural Intentions

(Research Regarding Eastern European Tourists Visiting Antalya, Turkey)

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Abstract

This study examines the effect of overall customer satisfaction on first-time and repeat customers' behavioural intentions in the tour operating sector. By using a multinational tour operator's data which consists of 7,380 first-time and 7,114 repeat customers from the Eastern European countries visiting Antalya, Turkey, statistical differences between the customer groups' overall satisfaction, and behavioural intentions were compared by t-test, firstly. Results showed that overall satisfaction values of both groups were almost equal. However, first-time customers' recommendation and re-purchase intentions were significantly lower than repeat customers'. The effects of overall customer satisfaction on behavioural intentions were also examined by regression analysis. Findings indicated that overall satisfaction of the first-time customers' had higher influence on their perceived value, recommendation and re-purchase intentions than repeat customers'.

Keywords: customer satisfaction, behavioural intention, tour, operator, first-time, repeat

Introduction

Tourism destinations worldwide have begun to compete with effectively and the growth of the tourism and travel sector continuing since the beginning of 1950s. International tourist arrivals reached 1.087 million in 2013 (UNWTO- Tourism Highlights, 2014). Under such competitive conditions, each destination naturally targets offering high service quality and visitor satisfaction for gaining specific advantages in that global competition. However, overall satisfaction from a travel experience may vary among different market segments. Researchers, therefore, need to examine and clarify which type of visitors or market segments generate positive or negative outcomes as a result of their travel experiences. The objective of this study is to investigate whether first-time and repeat customers' (visitors') overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions, as well as the influence of overall satisfaction on behavioural intentions changing in the tourism and travel context. With this purpose, a literature review is presented in the following section which is followed by the methods section of the study. In the results section, relationships among variables are clarified according to independent samples t-tests and regression analyses results. Findings and future research recommendations are summarized in the discussion and conclusion section.

Literature Review

Customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction is considered to have significant influence on customers' behavioural intentions in the business and tourism management literature. While customer satisfaction may lead to positive behavioural outcomes or intentions such as recommendation, high value perception, re-purchase and tolerance to price increases; dissatisfaction of the customers may result business failures from such complaints and financial lost.

In the tourism and travel literature, first-time and repeat customers have been investigated and compared with each other by the academics in the research topics of; value, motivation and satisfaction from the festival settings (Lee, Lee and Wicks, 2004; Lee and Beeler, 2006; Lee, Lee

and Yoon, 2009; Kruger, Saayman and Ellis, 2010), destination satisfaction (Kozak, 2001; Fallon and Schofield, 2003), destination risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies (Fuchs and Reichei, 2011), destination loyalty (Kozak, Huan and Beaman, 2002; Kozak, Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Chi, 2012), travel activity preferences, and post-trip evaluations (Li, Cheng, Kim and Petrick, 2008), destination image and determinants of intentions (Morais and Lin, 2010).

While being first-time or repeat customers is used as a criterion by the academics for the identification of market segments visiting tourism destinations, repeat customers are also treated so as to make them loyal visitors of the destinations. In some studies significant differences were obtained between the first-time and repeat customers, however, in some other studies researchers could not identify any difference between these groups. Therefore, academics should examine the first-time and repeat customers' characteristics and compare the differences amongst them by analyzing the relationships between the research variables in various tourism and travel settings.

Method

In this study, a multinational tour operator's data consisted of 7,380 first time and 7,114 repeat customers visiting Antalya, Turkey from the Eastern European countries. The data were used for the examination of the effects of overall customer satisfaction on behavioural intention and the differences between these customer groups. Items that measure overall customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions were taken from a large size survey about tour operator's services. Each variable was measured by single item, using a five-point scale. Items of the variables are shown in Table 2. With the purpose of understanding customers' main characteristics, some of the information such as their genders, nationalities, and age groups were also examined.

Results

The profile of a typical respondent of this study is Russian (56.4%), female (66.0%), who is between 19-36 (58.1%) years old. Ukrainian tourists (14.4%) were another group chosen to examine in details and those people between 37-54 years old (27.2%) also comprise an important share of the total respondents.

Table 1. Sample Characteristics

| | | First-time Customers | | Repeat Customers | |
|----------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|
| | | (N= 7,380) | | (N= 7,114) | |
| | | N | Valid % | N | Valid % |
| Gender | Male | 2,209 | 32.0 | 2,012 | 29.6 |
| | Female | 4,874 | 68.0 | 4,775 | 70.4 |
| | Missing | 297 | | 327 | |
| Age | Below than 18 | 52 | 0.8 | 37 | 0.6 |
| | Between 19-36 | 4,290 | 63.5 | 3,410 | 53.9 |
| | Between 37-54 | 2,004 | 29.6 | 2,369 | 37.4 |
| | 55 and above | 413 | 6.1 | 516 | 8.1 |
| | Missing | 621 | | 782 | |
| Country | Kazakhstan | 168 | 2.7 | 96 | 1.6 |
| | Serbia | 9 | 0.1 | 19 | 0.3 |
| | The Russian Federation | 4,161 | 66.4 | 4,115 | 68.0 |
| | Ukraine | 1,061 | 16.9 | 1,103 | 18.2 |
| | Tatarstan | 91 | 1.5 | 66 | 1.1 |
| | Belarus | 555 | 8.9 | 416 | 6.9 |
| | Lithuania | 66 | 1.0 | 70 | 1.2 |
| | Latvia | 79 | 1.3 | 129 | 2.1 |
| | Republic of Bulgaria | 27 | 0.4 | 15 | 0.2 |
| | Estonia | 21 | 0.3 | 10 | 0.2 |
| | Armenia | 30 | 0.5 | 13 | 0.2 |
| | Missing | 1,112 | | 1,062 | |

By independent samples t-tests, first-time and repeat customers' overall customer satisfaction, value perception, recommendation and re-purchase intention were statistically compared, firstly. Significant differences were noted between the two groups according to their recommendations and their re-purchase intentions. Results showed that both recommendations and re-purchase intentions of the repeat customers' were higher than first-time customers. This finding shows consistency with the existing literature where repeat customers are considered to have positive intentions and higher loyalty tendencies than first-time customers. However, the groups' value perceptions and overall customer satisfaction mean values were not significantly different.

Table 2. Means Differences of the First Time and Repeat Customers' on Overall Satisfaction, Value Perception, Recommendation and Re-purchase Intention

| | First-time Customers | | Repeat Customers | | t | Sig. |
|--|----------------------|----------|------------------|----------|--------|---------------|
| | Means | Std.Dev. | Means | Std.Dev. | | |
| Overall Customer Satisfaction "I am satisfied with that holiday experience in overall" | 4.43 | .770 | 4.45 | .764 | -2.084 | .037* |
| Value Perception "The holiday that I bought from the X tour operator worth the money I paid" | 4.27 | .855 | 4.26 | .867 | .556 | .578 |
| Recommendation "I recommend the X tour operator to others" | 4.38 | .836 | 4.43 | .787 | 3.588 | .001** |
| Re-purchase "I prefer the X tour operator for my next holiday" | 4.27 | .897 | 4.36 | .843 | 5.887 | .000** |

*(Significant in 0.05 level), ** (Significant at 0.001 level)

In the following phases of the analyses, the author examined the influence of overall customer satisfaction on behavioural intention of the customers such as value perception, recommendation, and re-purchase. Regression analysis results showed that satisfaction significantly affect behavioural intention of the first-time customers. Thus, tourism and travel companies should primarily aim to achieve high overall satisfaction for their first-time customers if they want to create repeat customers for the future.

Table 3. Effect of Overall Customer Satisfaction on First-time Customers' Behavioural Intentions

| Dependent Variables | Standardized Regression Coefficients | R ² | F | p |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|----------|--------------|
| <i>Perceived Value</i> | .623 | .389 | 4443.025 | .000* |
| <i>Recommendation</i> | .707 | .499 | 6955.008 | .000* |
| <i>Re-purchase</i> | .694 | .482 | 6437.698 | .000* |

(Independent variable: Overall Customer Satisfaction)

*(Significant at 0.000 level)

The influence of overall customer satisfaction on behavioural intention for repeat customers was investigated by regression analyses. All regression coefficients were significant and high. The results show that customer satisfaction has significant and considerable effect on both first-time and repeat customers' behavioural intentions.

Table 4. Effect of Overall Customer Satisfaction on Repeat Customers' Behavioural Intentions

| Dependent Variables | Standardized Regression Coefficients | R² | F | p |
|----------------------------|---|----------------------|----------|--------------|
| <i>Perceived Value</i> | .602 | .362 | 3772.205 | .000* |
| <i>Recommendation</i> | .684 | .468 | 5853.287 | .000* |
| <i>Re-purchase</i> | .691 | .477 | 6040.857 | .000* |

(Independent variable: Overall Customer Satisfaction)

*(Significant at 0.000 level)

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, the relationships amongst overall customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions of the first-time and repeat customers who are visiting Antalya, Turkey were examined by using data obtained from a multinational tour operator. One of the main strengths of the study was using large sample sizes for each group. Moreover, this study contributes to the current knowledge about the Eastern European country citizens' tourism and travel behaviours. Although demand from the Eastern European market considerably increased in the tourism sector, especially, in the last two decades, the scarce number of studies examined tourist behaviour of the customers from these countries. Thus, the present study's findings can be tested by replication of the research at different tourism destinations. By this way, tourism practitioners may enable generation of specific services which meet the needs and preferences of these market customers.

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An Examination of the Effect of Demographic Variables and Personality on Accounting Professionals Valuations of Job Characteristics

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Abstract

Our research examines the effect of demographic variables and personality on accounting professionals valuation of job characteristics. Much prior research has focused on what firms want in a candidate but little on what candidates want in a firm.

The demographic variables of the accounting professionals examined were gender, number of financial dependents, and number of years of professional work experience. The personality types examined were entrepreneurial and analytical. The job characteristics examined were benefits, geographical location, job security, long-term growth opportunities, nature of work, salary, and work environment.

Our results indicate that for accounting professionals, qualitative job characteristics were rated as more important in job choice than quantitative job characteristics. The three characteristics rated as most important were work environment, nature of the work, and potential for long-term growth. These all affect how much a person enjoys their work, rather than their extrinsic rewards. The three job characteristics rated as least important were the factors that are easiest to quantify: salary, geographical location, and benefits.

After looking at the entire group, we analyzed the responses of subsets to see if the importance placed on job characteristics differed by personality, gender, experience level, or the existence of financial dependents. Analysis of the results showed that those with an entrepreneurial personality tended to care significantly more about the nature of the work and long-term growth opportunities than did those with an analytical personality. Those with an analytical personality cared more about geography and salary than the entrepreneurial personality type.

Women rated the importance of all job characteristics higher than men except for long-term growth opportunities. However, while the only significant differences were for job security and work environment, there were marginal differences for benefits and salary.

We also grouped respondents by work experience levels into entry (0-5 years), junior (6-10 years), senior (11-20 years), and experienced (20+ years). The men surveyed did not show any significant trends across level of experience, but women did. Female accounting professionals in the senior and experienced categories ranked the importance of job security significantly higher than entry and junior level female accounting professionals.

Survey respondents were also asked to indicate the number of people who were financial dependent on them. The data showed that if a respondent had any financial dependents at all, the desire for benefits increased significantly. There was no significant relationship between having financial dependents and the desire for job security or salary. Thus, when trying to attract someone with dependents, benefits are more relevant than job security or salary.

This research has several implications. Although firms may offer standard packages to potential employees, it may be useful to fine tune the hiring process. This could be achieved by emphasizing certain job characteristics in the position announcement and during the interview process to appeal to particular subsets of candidates.

Self-study E-learning Inside Versus Outside the Classroom

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E-learning has many benefits. Flexibility is one obvious benefit of e-learning. Students can study anywhere at anytime. It also provides students flexibility to study at their own pace. However, absence of face-to-face supervision in e-learning requires learners to control their study autonomously. For some students, it is very difficult to motivate themselves to continue to study, which sometimes leads to poor, sloppy learning or dropping out. For those students, providing a classroom setting might be more beneficial than to let them study completely independently.

This presentation reports on the study the author conducted in 2012-14 to compare differences in student performance between a classroom setting and an autonomous study setting. The findings of the study include:

- Students in the classroom setting had less disordered study conduct than those who studied completely independently.
- Students in the classroom setting had higher correct answer rates than those who studied completely independently.
- Students in the classroom setting had larger TOEIC score gains than those who studied completely independently.

IM-11 Scale: An Instrument for Measuring Internal Marketing

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Extended Abstract

Today's modern view of marketing considers organizations' employees as internal customers whose needs ought to be satisfied in the internal market environment (Berry, 1981; George, 2002; Gummesson, 1987; Rafiq and Ahmed, 1993). According to this view, internal marketing (IM) is the application of marketing tools and techniques to satisfy the needs and expectations of employees (Lings, 2004) in order to accomplish external customer satisfaction and retention (George, 1990). IM concept may be viewed as a combination of two critical elements: organization and its employees. According to Foreman and Money (1995), organization may either be the entire organization or a specific department within the organization and the employees is to the target of IM—either all employees or specific groups of employees within a department. To this end, the IM concept integrates these two critical elements that have mutual interests with a common purpose.

Although marketing operations have traditionally been focused on satisfying the needs of external customers, scholars agree that it is imperative to evaluate the employee relationships with their organizations and external customers. In this context, by focusing on the relationship between organization and its employees, IM is considered an effective approach external marketing and important for improving service quality. Although the existing IM scales include some items measuring employee retention through motivation, they do not incorporate information about employee expectations, needs, and motivations to measure IM construct. For instance, one of the most frequently used scales to measure IM was developed by Foreman and Money (1995). However, this scale mainly attempts to measure the motivation through vision, training, and rewards. We agree that these are important factors in the scope of IM but they do not integrate individual employee expectations and needs. Besides the vision, rewards, and development, literature provides support for existence of other aspects of IM such as physical conditions (Parasuraman et al., 1988), fundamental needs (Maslow, 1943; Herzberg, 1976), open and transparent communication (Gounaris, 2006) that would contribute to the motivating employees to be more customer centric. One could argue that the concepts captured by Foreman and Money (1995) may not fully reflect IM construct. Hence, in this empirical study, we attempt to offer a scale that incorporates additional crucial IM concepts to fully reflect the IM measurement.

In this study, we used both qualitative and quantitative approaches in the development of the IM scale. In the first stage of the study, we have developed several scale items to measure IM construct and then in the second stage, we empirically tested the developed scale using full-time employees of a higher educational institution in Turkey. More specifically, after conducting a comprehensive literature review on existing scales of IM, we've conducted in-depth interviews with critical organizational experts, discussed the items in the existing IM scales, and brainstormed about the scale items that need to be included in a measurement instrument to measure the IM. During these in-depth interviews, participants were mainly directed to share their thoughts about various components of IM. Eleven items generated are converted into questionnaire format and administered to a small group of participants for pre-testing to assure their validity. As a result, minor modifications are made for clarity purposes. We then selected the academic personnel of a large university in the western part of Turkey as the sampling frame. One hundred and twenty-four completed questionnaires were returned but two of them were discarded due to

significant missing data. Therefore, one hundred and twenty-two questionnaires ($n=122$) were used in the final analysis of the data.

Both exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used to assess the construct reliability of the developed scale. Results showed that all eleven items were loaded on a single dimension, factor loadings ranging from 0.610 to 0.866 with a cumulative explained variance of 61%. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO-MSA) (Kaiser, 1970) and Bartlett's test for Sphericity for the data were used to determine the suitability of the data for factor analysis. The KMO measure was 0.948 which would be considered "excellent." Bartlett's Sphericity test resulted in ($\chi^2=880.657$; $p<0.001$) significant results indicating that the data is suitable for factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995). Reliability analysis results yielded an excellent coefficient alpha score ($\alpha=0.94$). IM represented as a latent construct had an AVE value of 0.62, which is higher than the minimum cut off point of 0.50. We then used confirmatory factor analysis to further assess scale validity. CFA results yielded excellent model fit indices ($\chi^2=49.6$, $df=44$, $p>0.10$; RMSEA=0.032; NFI=0.946; AGFI=0.901; GFI=0.934; CFI=0.994). Accordingly, this single dimensional scale with strong construct validity and reliability is called IM-11 Scale.

In sum, the results of this empirical study show strong support for the psychometric properties of the developed IM-11 scale to operationalize the IM construct. This instrument offers a tool for management to understand their ability to meet the needs and expectations of their employees. Moreover, this knowledge should provide a foundation for the management to develop strategies for employee motivation, job satisfaction, and performance and assume additional responsibilities in their efforts to better serving the external customers. However, we recognize some study limitations. Caution should be taken in generalizing the results of this study to larger populations and other environments. Additional studies needed to validate the results obtained in this study.

References Available upon Request

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Structuring Marketing Failures and Errors: A Model of the Cases of Japanese Firms

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This research uncovers the failures and errors of the marketing strategies embedded in organizations made in their execution, clarifying the problem areas while structuring them based on their types.

Best practices in management and marketing are often covered in the media. Research on the reasons for their success also takes place. Failures and errors, on the other hand, are rarely correctly examined and are ignored and forgotten without being turned into tacit knowledge. Because of this, there is no learning within organizations, and this leads to similar failures being easily repeated. Failures and errors made on site when carrying out marketing activities are spoken of as being particular to those circumstances and are often cited as a reason. Instances of the failures being generalized from an academic aspect are extremely rare. Another point to be raised is that the cause of the failures is ordinarily not simple in nature and is often a complex intertwining of factors related to marketing processes, organizations, and the external environment.

In this research, marketing failures and errors are understood at the corporate, divisional, product category, and product levels. The problems are generalized by utilizing an inductive method, and forming models is attempted through a systems thinking approach.

Recent Trends and Issues for the Accounting Profession: The case of Japan and U.S.

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Abstract

The role of the accounting profession has significantly changed due to the changes in the nature and complexity of organizational activities, increasing globalization, the contribution of IT and increasing regulation and scrutiny of accounting practice. The competency and responsibilities required of the profession has continued to increase. This paper discusses recent trends and issues that face the accounting profession in the U.S. and Japan with special consideration for the ongoing debate among the practitioners and academics on what the ideal education for the professional accountants should be at present.

Aggression and Stress Levels of Athletes: Do Gender and Sport Type Have an Effect?

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to investigate aggression and stress levels of athletes. We especially aimed at determining whether gender and sport type (combat sports compared to other sports) have an effect on aggression and stress scores. For this purpose 164 athletes voluntarily participated to the research. The participants consisted of 89 (54.3%) males and 75 (45.7%) females. 76 (46.3%) of the participants were from combat sports (e.g., kickboxing, wrestling, boxing etc.) and 88 (53.7) of participants were participating in other sports (e.g., basketball, swimming, tennis, volleyball, football etc.). Data was collected through the Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen and Williamson, 1988; Erci, 2006) and the Aggression Inventory (Kiper, 1984). Data was analysed by descriptive statistics and two-way MANOVA. Level of significance was determined to be .05. MANOVA results showed a significant result for gender (Wilks' Lambda = .925, $F(4,157) = 3.197$, $p = .015$, partial $\eta^2 = .075$) and sport type (Wilks' Lambda = .910, $F(4,157) = 3.902$, $p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .090$). However, gender and sport type did not have a significant effect (Wilks' Lambda = .952, $F(4,157) = 2.000$, $p = .097$, partial $\eta^2 = .048$). The results revealed that females had significantly higher scores in stress compared to males $F(1, 160) = 6.907$, $p = .009$, partial $\eta^2 = .041$. Also, athletes practicing combat sports had significantly lower scores in destructive aggression $F(1, 160) = 14.585$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .084$ and passive aggression $F(1, 160) = 9.507$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .056$. As a result it could be said that stress and aggression scores could change depending on gender and sport type. The results are discussed considering the features regarding gender and combat sports.

Keywords: Aggression, stress, sport type, gender.

Perfectionism and Motivation in Athletes: Negative Effect of Maladaptive Perfectionism on Motivation

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Abstract

The definition of perfectionism involves striving to be perfect and to avoid error. It is a personality trait and occurs when individuals set exceedingly high standards for themselves. Perfectionism could be pathological if the individual is intolerant of making mistakes or failing to keep certain standards. Such perfectionist perceptions make the individual feel that nothing done is good enough and everything should be better (Frost et al. 1990). Therefore the trait of perfectionism has been studied in relation to various outcomes (Bottos and Dewey, 2004; Luyten et al., 2006; White and Schweitzer, 2000; Molnar et al., 2006). The aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between perfectionism and amotivation in athletes. A total of 282 athletes voluntarily participated in the research ($M_{age} = 20.87 \pm 2.95$). 97 athletes were from team sports (34.4%) and 185 (65.6%) athletes were from individual sports. The participants were tested on the Almost Perfect Scale-R which was developed by Slaney et al (2001) and adapted into Turkish by Kağan (2006) to measure perfectionism. Amotivation was measured by the Sports Motivation Scale which was developed by Pelletier et al. (1995) and adapted into Turkish by Kazak (2004). For the data analyses; descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation analyses and linear regression analyses (enter method) were used. Results showed that standard and order, concern for not reaching standards, and dissatisfaction with success are positively and significantly correlated with amotivation. In addition, result of linear regression analysis revealed that, concern for not reaching standards significantly explained 37% variance in amotivation. In the light of the results it could be said that perfectionism is related to amotivation and more specifically maladaptive form of perfectionism could lead athletes to have higher amotivation scores. Through these understandings, athletes could be approached and trained in a way that can minimize their maladaptive forms of perfectionism.

Keywords: Perfectionism, amotivation, athletes

Influence of Maternal Level of Education on Child Survival: A Case Study of Kinango Division of Coast Province, Kenya

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Abstract

The central concern of this study was to explore how the level of maternal education influences under five child survivals. Statistics across the world including the Kenya Demographic Health Survey (2003) show a strong link between the mother's level of education and child survival. The KDHS (2003) shows that higher levels of mother's education attainment are generally associated with lower mortality rates, since education exposes mothers to information about better nutrition, use of contraceptives to space births and knowledge about childhood illnesses and treatment.

This was a case study of Kinango Division which is situated in the Coast Province of Kenya. The overall objective of the study was to explore how the level of maternal education influences under-five child survival while the specific objectives were; to find out the general education status of women in the division, to identify the main conditions that lead to under-five mortality in the division, to explore the extent to which the level of maternal education influences under-five child survival in the district, and recommend evidence-based interventions for policy planners and other development planners in the division.

The study adopted an exploratory survey design with the aim of collecting both quantitative and qualitative data from Kinango Division. The sampling frame was obtained from the Kinango District Demographic Health Survey conducted in 2005 by the Kinango District Health Management team based in Kinango hospital, in collaboration with UNICEF.

The 30 by 7 sampling technique, which was developed by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 1978, was applied in the study. Kinango division has 6 locations. The Area Map was used as the sampling frame from which 4 locations were selected randomly from the six locations within Kinango division. These locations formed the clusters. 16 households per cluster were selected to make a total of 64 households selected to participate in the study. Women of 15-49 years of age within selected households were studied. The age group of 15-49 years covered Women of Reproductive Age.¹ The rationale of using the probability sampling technique was to ensure that each study element had a non-zero chance of being included in the sample.

To enrich the study, a triangulation approach was adopted, i.e. in-depth interviews with women of 15-49 years of age, key-informant interviews with the MOH of Kinango District Hospital, the Lead Public Health Worker stationed in Kinango District hospital and a Focus Group Discussion comprising of 8 women of 15-49 years of age from the selected locations, were conducted.

From the results and discussion of the study findings, it can be concluded that the low levels of education of mothers in Kinango Division has contributed negatively to child health care and well-being which has, as a result, triggered elevated under-five deaths in the division.

¹WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA (2004). *Maternal Mortality in 2000*. Department of Reproductive Health and Research World Health Organization, Geneva 2004

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Some of the recommendations were drawn together with the respondents during the data collection process because they were representing the Kinango division community members who experienced the realities discussed in the study findings. It is my hope that with the implementation of these recommendations by the Policy Planners and Development Partners, there will be a remarkable improvement in child health care, and in the general standards of living and overall well-being of the inhabitants of Kinango, for the current generation and the generations to come.

“If we can get it right for children - if we can deliver on our commitments and enable every child to enjoy the right to a childhood, to health, education, equality, and protection – we can get it right for people of all ages. I believe we can”.

(Kofi Annan- The State of the World’s Children 2006)

Keywords: child mortality, education and training, maternal level of education, under-five child survival

The Culture of Sharing: Critical Research of the Sharing Economy and its Cultural Consequences in Europe

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Abstract

The emerging sharing economy breaks down certain capitalist laws giving rise to a new concept of business characterized by concepts such as swapping, exchanging, collaborative consumption, shared ownership, self-management, shared value, cooperatives, renting, lending, peer-to-peer (P2P), collaborative economy and crowdfunding. The sharing economy is getting power over the classic. Economic patterns performing in a new online peer-to-peer market in which users become producers and consumers at the same time. As many experts anticipate, the most striking repercussion of such an economy would be the development of a market in which products and services are nearly free due to their low cost of production (Rifkin, 2014; Anderson, 2012; Gansky, 2010). Aspects such as the digitalization of physical goods or the shift from “ownership” to “access” are playing an important role in this new business model. This paper focuses on plans for researching the “Culture of Sharing” within a European context throughout the PhD period (2014-2017). Using a web tracking system the research will analyze the user’s evolution of the main businesses representative of the sharing economy in order to know their relevance within the population. The aims of the project are 1) develop a deep critical analysis of the study field with the purpose of understanding how “sharing business” works nowadays: 2) to understand which cultural facts make possible the integration of this new economic model in European countries and 3) draw a common user profile of this kind of sharing culture. The methodology to be implemented integrates qualitative and quantitative data; thus, the procedure contemplates bibliographic references and complete online research using data tracking, questionnaires and keywords’ techniques.

Keywords: sharing economy, capitalism, culture, exchange, peer-to-peer, financial crisis, collaborative commons, Internet.

Spatial Integration and Identity: Cases of Border Regions

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Abstract

Because of the complexity and importance of the concept of spatial (cross-border) integration and identity, the paper first of all defines the applied meaning of these phenomena. It aims to explore relations between these two phenomena. It assumed that there are differences related to the spatial identity depending on the strength of integration. Probably, in strongly integrated border regions, where physical and mental borders have less or no importance, the population can identify with this spatial level better than people living in separated, alienated border regions. The study investigates several European borderlands from the aspects of integration and spatial identity and searches for the answer as to how the level of integration and the existence of physical and mental borders can determine the main characteristics of the regional, cross-border identity. This research helps to understand what kind of differences, similarities and specialties can be found in this field in several parts of Europe. Analysed cases in the paper are the following: the Öresund region at the Danish-Swedish border, the Polish-German borderland and the Basque border region between France and Spain. These cross-border regions are especially interesting from the aspect of identity, because the level of integration is likely distinct, thus the identity patterns as well.

Theoretical background and methodology

First of all, it is necessary to define the meaning of *spatial integration* used in this paper. The idea of integration (social, economic, political) underpins the formation of the European Union. Integration tends to be regarded as a positive response to the disintegration of traditional structures caused by the globalisation. Within the EU, several distinct concepts of integration can currently be identified. One of often applied definitions comes from the first official project of ESDP:

Spatial integration expresses the opportunities for and level of (economic, cultural) interaction within and between areas and may reflect the willingness to co-operate. It also indicates, for example, levels of connectivity between transport systems of different geographical scales. Spatial integration is positively influenced by the presence of efficient administrative bodies, physical and functional complementarity between areas and the absence of cultural and political controversies (Boe, D. – C. Grasland – Healy, A. et al., 1999:7).

Marcuse (1997; 2005) affirms that integration represents the elimination of barriers to free mobility and the establishment of positive and non-hierarchical relationships. The dimensions (Table 1) are specifiable aspects of a concept to help grasp the complex meaning of **socio-spatial integration**. The *physical dimension* means the proximity between social groups, and can involve variables like space design, spatial distance according to social distance, agglomeration, clustering and so on. The *functional dimension* is related to access to opportunities and can involve variables like spatial distance to opportunities, quality of opportunities, economic access to services, level of state involvement and presence of public and private institutions. The *relational dimension* implies the interaction between different social groups, and can involve variables like hierarchical and non-hierarchical relations, social control, leadership, community institutions, cultural exchange and assimilation between groups, social capital, social networks, political participation, etc. Finally, the *symbolic dimension* is related to identification with a common ground and can involve variables such as real and imaginary boundaries,

Supported by Hungarian Academy of Sciences Junior International Conference Competition Identification:
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partial and common identity and differentiation, separation between established members and outsiders, etc. (Ruiz-Tagle, 2013).

Table 1: The dimensions of socio-spatial integration

| Macro dimensions | Socio-spatial dimensions | Characterization |
|------------------|--------------------------|--|
| Systemic | Physical | Physical proximity between social groups (defined by power and status) |
| | Functional | Effective access to opportunities and services in the territory |
| Social | Relational | Non-hierarchical interaction between different social groups |
| | Symbolic | Identification with a common group |

Source: Ruiz-Tagle, 2013

One of the sub-types of the spatial integration can be considered the ***cross-border integration***. The concept of this phenomenon encompasses numerous understandings. In the field of border studies, it is clearly understood as a regionally-based phenomenon, which takes place along national borders across different domains, ranging from economics to politics and culture. This paper focuses on this perspective (Sohn, 2014).

The other important phenomenon used in this paper is the ***identity***, especially related to areas. Identity has been a popular word for more than two decades already. The needs of individuals and groups are seen as a reaction to the dominant interest for social structures and systems in the 1960s and 1970s. The identity of groups will be related to families, relationship and personal connections as well as to linguistic, religious and other cultural community, but also to local, regional and national bonds. “Identity” is to be understood as a feeling or a certainty of belonging to a group or area or to be one with this group or area. If this feeling or certainty is related to an area or region it is referred to ***spatial or regional identity*** (Heller, 2011).

Regional identity has been described in the literature as closely connected to common space and culture, creating in individuals a sense of belonging. Regional identity is the identification of a group of people with the social system of a region, its culture, history, traditions and landscape (Paasi, 2003; Raagmaa, 2002). In some cases, regional identity may act as a stabilising, changing and constructive factor in a region, whilst in others it may have destructive effects, particularly when national and regional identities come into conflict (Smallbone, et al., 2007). Territorial identity is one of the ‘keystones’ of region and plays a key role in the process of the institutionalization of regions as well as the de-institutionalization of regions. Research on the relationship between people and the territory they inhabit has become increasingly important in recent years, along with research concerning the degree to which one ‘belongs’ to a territory and its territorial society or community (Semian – Chromy, 2014).

According to Paasi (1986, 2009), regional identity consists of two components: regional identity of the inhabitants and the identity of a region. The first one (regional identity inhabitants) is the expressed sense of belonging to a community and the perceived differences between a specific region and other regions by its inhabitants (an ‘us’ and ‘them’ relationship). It can be based on collective identification with community in a particular territory and/or collective identification with the particular regional environment of inhabited territory. The second one (identity of a region) is based on the constitution of a regional image either from within or from outside or, in other words, how the region is presented and perceived by its own inhabitants and institutions as well as by others outside the region. The image of a region can be influenced through promotion, branding, and marketing. The inhabitants can also be identified with the represented image of the region (Paasi 1986, 2009; Semian – Chromy, 2014).

Why is the identity so specific in the cases of the border regions? How can link the cross-border integration to the spatial identity? To answer these questions, the paper overviews the main characteristics of the borders and highlight why the identity of the border population can be so specific.

First of all, we have to take into account that European borders are *unnatural, political constructions*. Looking at European history, border drawing has been a consequence of the struggles about formation and re-formation of nation states, and the majority of contemporary European borders have been drawn as a consequence of the two world wars in the twentieth century (Yndigegn, 2011). Furthermore, borders are *multidimensional* (Risse, 2004). They are physical entities and determine people's perceptions. They are *spatial representations of power relations*, and become reflected in the minds of the people who live with and along the borders (Anderson - O'Dowd, 1999; Delanty, 2006). Besides being physical realities in geographical space, borders are *social constructions*. They divide people between known and unknown, between native and foreign, between us and them, moreover they *produce meaning and significance* beyond their existence. Borders *signify the relationships between actors and institutions* in the borderland (Yndigegn, 2011). Paasi (1998) pointed out that borders or boundaries have *identity producing functions*. Moreover, let us think the words of Newman and Paasi (1998:194), who said "*identity and boundaries seem to be different sides of the same coin*" on the fact that state borders are symbols of social institutions and power relations. In border areas, the space-related identity is an important topic especially, because political borders do not necessarily mean cultural, social and economic borders, even in cases when they are permeable. In these areas, the population can have a specific identity, which can be characterised by two or more identities. These border areas can be considered as areas of interference, where heterogeneous societies with overlapping identities are established. Moreover, the history and the conception of the history (cultural memory) which a population has can be important factors for the building of identity (Heller, 2011). Within the disciplines sociology, history, psychology and political science the memory functions are considered as being fundamental for the process of identity formation (Zimmermann-Steinhart, 2005). Van Houtum, Kramsch and Zierhofer (2005) argue that the hybrid culture that develops in cooperative cross-border urban areas will support the emergence of a new regional identity.

As for methodology, based on the hypothesis of this paper, in strongly integrated border regions, where physical and mental borders have less or no importance, the population can identify with this spatial level better than people living in separated, alienated border regions. In order to be able to decide on this hypothesis, the paper investigates three European borderlands from the aspects of cross-border integration and regional identity. The selected border regions are: the Öresund region at the Danish-Swedish border, Frankfurt-Oder – Slubice at the German-Polish border and Basque region at the French-Spanish border. They are very different from the aspects of the geographical position and extension, processes of economic and social development, historical background, dates of the accession to the European Union and thus the level of integration as well. The different endowments, possibilities and cooperation culture justify the selection of these areas. Figure 1 represents the selected border regions on a map, while Table 2 summarizes their main features.

Figure 1: Examined border regions



Edited by Author, 2015

Table 2: Main features of the examined border regions

| Cross-border region | Member states | Accession to the EU | Population (inhab.) |
|--------------------------|---------------|---------------------|--|
| Öresund | Denmark | 1973 | 3,8 million (67% Danish side, 33% Swedish side) (2011) |
| | Sweden | 1995 | |
| Basque region | France | 1952 | 3 million (80% Spanish side, 20% French side) (2015) |
| | Spain | 1986 | |
| Frankfurt-Oder – Słubice | Germany | 1952 | 80 000 (75% German side, 25% Polish side) (2009) |
| | Poland | 2004 | |

Source: OECD, 2013. Everyculture.com, 2015, Mission Operationelle Transfrontalière, 2009

Cross-border identity as reality? – Cases of several border regions

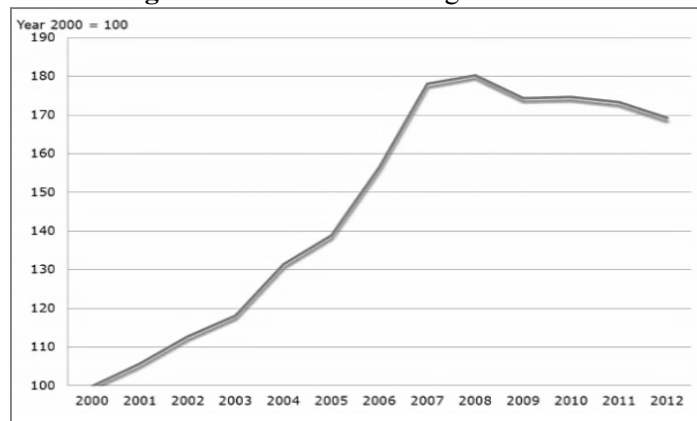
Danish-Swedish-border - Öresund Region

The Öresund Region is formed by the eastern part of Denmark and the south-western part of Sweden. The region is named after the narrow water, the Öresund. In the region can be found the Danish capital Copenhagen, and the third largest Swedish city, Malmö (Yndigegn, 2011). It represents the first European experiment of integration between two states based on marketing, economy and infrastructures (Santanicchia, 2003). Copenhagen and Malmö were connected by the 18- km fixed Öresund link in 2000. It was built with the explicit purpose of a new regional regime driven by cross-border functional integration. The object was to increase regional productivity, economic growth and competitive vitality, and thus give the Öresund Area new dynamics (Matthiessen, 2004).

The bridge building project initiated an integration process that developed in different ways. The population started to act on the new possibilities that opened, and the public authorities launched national separate plans for city development. The bridge became a catalyst for cross-border cooperation between the two countries (Yndigegn, 2011). In 1999, before the Öresund bridge opened, around 2 600 people commuted daily across the Swedish-Danish border. One decade later, around 20 000 commuted daily to work or study, though this had fallen to around 15 000 by 2013, in the wake of the financial crisis (McEwen-Petersohn, 2014). Commuting goes almost only in one direction; 95% of the commuters live in Sweden and, work in Denmark. Many Danes have settled in Sweden because of lower property prices. It reflects economic conditions that almost all traffic goes from Sweden to Denmark. There is no economic incentive to move the other way (Yndigegn, 2011).

It is possible to observe how new more or less formal networks evolve within the different sectors linking individual organizations in a strategic network of new resources and action structures. The “Öresund University” links the many different universities and business schools in the region. “Medicon Valley” has been a vehicle for corporation between research institutions and firms within the medical industry. The project “The Birth of a Region” is concerned with marketing and development of the Öresund Region initiated by public organizations in the area, and “Science Region” is perhaps a label that possible could integrate the networks above into a cohesive whole. This short list of initiatives is just mentioned to illustrate that many things are happening and a lot of organizations take part in the project of integrating the area (Tangkjær, 1999). According to the EU, the region of Öresund is considered a model for further cultural and economic integration within the EU, and an example of the new Europe without borders (Hofstam – Waldemarsson, 2006). This integration across Öresund is important for both countries. The Öresundskomiteen has developed an integration index to measure the changes of the integration between the Danish and Swedish part of the Öresund region compared with year 2000, which is the year of the opening of the Öresund Bridge. Values above 100 displays that the Öresund region is more integrated than in year 2000. The value of the index in 2012 is 169. So far the highest value of the index was reached in 2008 – at 180. The Integration Index is a combination of five sub-indices measuring the integration within the labour market, housing, business, culture and transport. Each of the five sub-indices weights 20% (Öresundskomiteen, 2013).

Figure 2: The Öresund Integration Index



Source: Öresundskomiteen, 2013

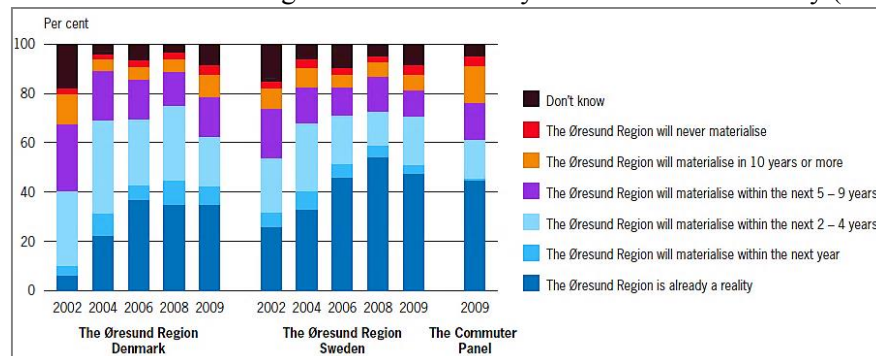
Seeing this growing tendency the question may arise: Do the inhabitants share in a common Öresund identity as a result of the integration processes? To answer this question, we can take into account two surveys related to regional identity.

Firstly, as part of a larger project being carried out during 2001-2004 on identity in the Öresund region, 1949 residents of Denmark and Sweden were polled in 2001 regarding attitudes and behaviours towards their municipalities, regions, nation, and Europe as a whole. The data analysis reveals that there are significant differences between Danish and Swedish inhabitants of the Öresund region when it comes to matters of interest in the region, knowledge about the region, a willingness to identify and be seen as a member of the region, and moreover, the willingness to engage in substantial cross-Öresund activities (Bucken-Knapp, 2012).

Secondly, based another survey (2002-2009), published by Öresundsbron in 2010, slightly over half the polled Scanians (Swedish) (52%) declared that they regard themselves as Öresund citizens compared to 29% Danish part of the region. Among commuters using the Öresund Bridge, the figure is significantly higher (79%). Being an Öresund citizen, however, is only one of several identities of the region's inhabitants. When dealing with the “other” country's inhabitants, language and regulations, people on both sides are inevitably reminded of their own national identity. Common identity or not, the concept of one common region enjoys strong support among the Öresund Region's residents, with 47% of Scanians (Swedish) and 35% of Zealanders (Danish) believe that the Öresund Region is now a

reality. At the same time, 40% of Scanians and 53% of Zealanders expect the Öresund Region to become a reality. Just 4% on each side believe that it will never materialise (Öresundbron, 2010) (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Will the Öresund Region become a reality? – Results of the survey (2002-2009)



Source: Öresundsbron, 2010

Santanicchia (2003) emphasizes, what the Scanians and Copenhageners need to understand is that they will not lose their identity because of becoming Öresunders; as well as they are Öresunders, they are Swedish, Danish, Muslims, Christians, and so on.

The Basque region between France and Spain

The Basque region is situated in the western Pyrenees and includes territories in northeastern Spain and southwestern France with a total population of 2,900,000 inhabitants and an area of 20,531 km² (Menendez-Baceta et.al. 2015). At present, this territory is divided among three political-administrative structures: In the French State, le Pays Basque, and within the Spanish State, the Basque Autonomous Community and the Autonomous Community of Navarra (Lokarri, 2015). These three administrative regions include seven historical territories (Araba, Bizkaia, Gipuzkoa, Lapurdi, the Southern and Northern Navarre and Zuberoa) (Douglass, 1996; Center for Basque Studies, 2011)

From the aspect of socio-spatial integration, as a result of the removal of border controls within the EU due to the Schengen agreement, many communities located in border zones have had to reassess their relationship with their neighbours across state frontiers. The French-Spanish border in the Basque Country is one of the cases, where numerous cross-frontier initiatives have been launched over the last decade. An increasing number of inhabitants now cross the frontier on a regular basis. In parallel, numerous economic changes have taken place, of which the steady urbanisation of the border is a consequence. All this means that traditional identities are altered with new emerging symbolic references (Bray, 2002). The stabilization of the Spanish democratic regime and Spain's accession to the European Community in 1986 favoured cross-border cooperation in Basque areas, which took two very different forms. On the one hand, inter-state cooperation over border controls was strengthened by European anti-terrorist and immigration policy. At the same time, European integration helped establish a framework of cooperation favourable to interventions by regional and local authorities. The progressive institutionalization of cross-border relations was strongly supported by the EU. From 1983, the French Aquitaine region and the Spanish Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) were among the nine border regions which founded the Pyrenean Labour Community. One example of cross-border institutional cooperation is the Bidasoa-Txingudi cross-border consortium (1998), which brought together the French town of Hendaye and the Spanish towns of Hondarribi and Irun (Itçaina, 2014). Nevertheless, Bray (2002) pointed out, the Bidasoa-Txingudi continues to be a highly segmented society, divided by a state frontier and differing traditions and attitudes, by language, social origins and loyalties and its members are as aware of their differences.

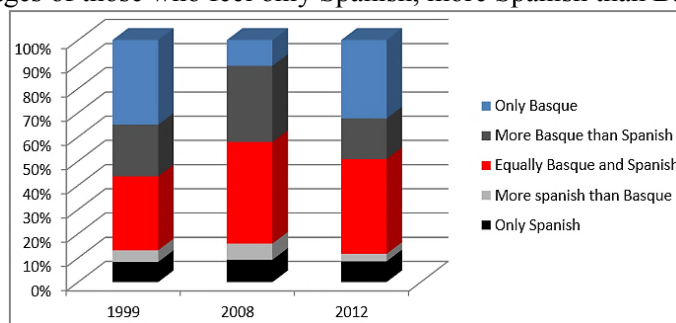
The Treaty of Bayonne, signed by France and Spain in 1995, strengthened the legal framework for cooperation. Small-scale cooperation between border municipalities flourished. Finally, the Aquitaine-Euskadi Euroregion (2011) represented a new phase in setting up a framework for cross-border cooperation. The process has had to overcome institutional and political asymmetries. There is a significant budgetary gap between the Aquitaine region, the BAC, and Navarre. Similarly there are large

differences between the extensive fiscal powers of the Basque Provincial Deputations and the more limited options of a French *département* (administrative area). At a political level, the perception of cross-border cooperation by political elites is different. French leaders had a functional and not identity-based perception of cooperation, while the BAC, when controlled by the Basque Nationalist Party (PNV) saw cross-border cooperation as an opportunity to strengthen cultural ties between Basques (Itçaina, 2014).

It is not an easy task to define who Basque is and who not. One of the definitions is that Basques are people who speak Euskera. Another definition says that Basques are those who have Basque ancestors, even if they cannot speak Euskera. There are two other definitions as well. A Basque is a person who lives or works in the Basque Country, or a Basque is a person who thinks that he or she is a Basque (Jokinen, 2005). The issue of 'Basque identity' is a sensitive subject, reflecting past and present political and social tensions and competing notions of territory, region and country (Bray, 2002), moreover, based on the scientific literature, the situation is very different in the Spanish Basque Country (Hegoalde) and French side (Iparralde). Thus, this paper points out on the main differences.

In order to analyse Basque identity in the *Spanish side of the border*, Bartolomé (2013) has summarized the main results of European Values Study (1999, 2008) and Project Political Elites (2012) (Figure 4; 5).

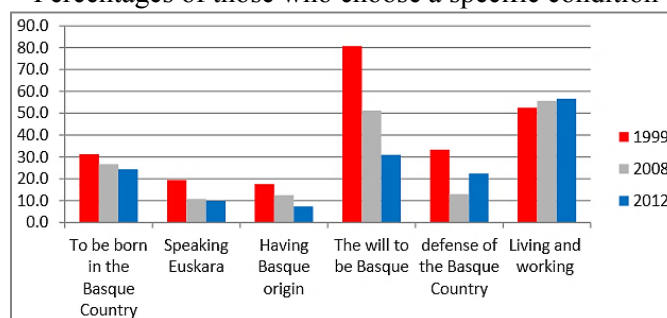
Figure 4: Basque-Spanish identity in 1999, 2008 and 2012.
Percentages of those who feel only Spanish, more Spanish than Basque, etc.



Source: Edited by Bartolomé, 2013 based on European Values Study (1999, 2008) and Project Political Elites (2012).

As can be seen from Figure 6, the levels of Spanish nationalism have practically remained unchanged throughout the period 1999-2012 with a minority position. The option "equally Basque and Spanish" occupies a very relevant position, with a higher frequency in 2008. The percentage of people who declare to be either more Basque than Spanish or only Basque represents between 50-60% of the population. What seems to change throughout this time is the option in which people locate themselves (Bartolomé, 2013). Figure 5 shows the percentage of individuals who declare as relevant a number of given conditions for being considered Basque.

Figure 5: Conditions for being considered Basque 1999, 2008 and 2012.
Percentages of those who choose a specific condition



Source: Edited by Bartolomé, 2013 based on European Values Study (1999, 2008) and Project Political Elites (2012).

The condition that seems to be the least relevant for respondents is to have Basque origins, in terms of having Basque parents or grandparents, which has also decreased over time. However, language often has an important role in ethnic identity and it means often much more than only a means of communication and it can be a very powerful symbol when discussing ethnic identity (Jokinen, 2005), speaking Euskara (Basque language) is the second least relevant condition for respondents, also showing a decrease over time (Bartolomé, 2013). One reason can be the fact that the Basque language and culture during the regime of Francisco Franco (1939–75) in the Spanish provinces were ruthlessly suppressed (everyculture.com, 2015).

To be born in the Basque Country is also one of the conditions that have been decreasing in relevance over time, probably due to the effect of immigration and assimilation of many of the inhabitants in the Basque Country (Bartolomé, 2013). One explanation can be that 28.7% of the population in the Basque Country were born outside of region according to data prepared by Eustat relative to the 2011 Population and Housing Censuses. The percentage of individuals born outside of the Basque Country has remained stable over the last ten years, although changes have been produced in their origins (Eustat, 2013).

Defending the Basque Country was somewhat relevant in 1999, with a significant decrease in 2008, and a revival in 2012, although it has returned to the levels of 1999. The two conditions to be considered Basque found most important by the respondents are: firstly, the will to be Basque—although this has experienced the strongest decrease throughout time, and secondly, living and working in the Basque Country. This condition scored the second highest in 1999, and the highest in 2008 and 2012, with a constant increase over time (Bartolomé, 2013).

What differences can be observed in the French Basque Country compared to the previously characterized Spanish side of the border?

In order to answer this question, we have to pay attention on the research of Bray (2006), whose paper analyzes the “ethnonational identity³” of young French Basques in Iparralde in the context of European integration. Based on this research, one of the main differences between the two parts of the Basque Country is that young people in Iparralde tend to be more familiar with the political and cultural character of Hegoalde than is the case for their counterparts in Hegoalde in relation to Iparralde. Many young people from Iparralde spend their free time south of the border, attracted by its wider choice of cultural and social activities. The political and institutional arrangements are also very different on the two sides of the border. In Spain, the Basque people are recognized by the constitution as a nationality within the Spanish nation. Hegoalde is a clearly delineated territory with its own government, parliament, budget and taxation system. The Basque language is officially recognized and taught in

³ National identity is primarily marked by identification with a specific nation. The concept of “ethnonational identity” goes further in that it refers to an identity marked not only by identification with a nation, but also by a code dictating who can and cannot belong (Bray, 2006).

schools, and use of it is given importance in both the public and private worlds. By contrast, Iparralde is part of a larger administrative entity, the Département des Pyrénées Atlantiques, which in turn is part of the much larger region of Aquitaine. However, the language is one of the most important identity markers for Basque youths in Iparralde, but it enjoys only a minimal position in the French public space. Only approximately 27 percent of the population of Iparralde can speak Basque and these are largely people above 50 years of age. The French state continues to refuse any official status for regional languages, contrary to the European Charter for Minority Languages drafted by the Council of Europe and ratified by most EU member states. So while on the Spanish side numerous people live out their identification with Basqueness quite comfortably, on the French side, Basque youths worry about how their language and sense of collective identity are going to survive (Bray, 2006).

Frankfurt (Oder) – Słubice (German-Polish border)

Before the Second World War, Frankfurt (Oder) and Słubice formed a single German town, divided by the river Oder. In 1945, the Eastern part of the river became an autonomous Polish town, Słubice, and the Oder, as major commercial waterway, a state frontier. Located 80 km east of Berlin, this cross-border conurbation has a population of 80,000 (75% on the German side and 25% on the Polish side) (Mission Operationelle Transfrontalière, 2009). In the Polish side the town belongs to the Lubuskie province and in the German side it is part of the Brandenburg region (Dudek et al, 2014).

Towns located on the international borders of the EU are regularly described as the “laboratories” of European integration because cross-border contact and interaction is very intensive in these regions. These cities are also locations where the EU has most vigorously pursued policies aimed at de-emphasizing national boundaries (Asher, 2005). Cross-border cooperation between Frankfurt (Oder) – Słubice began in the early 1990s, after German reunification and the easing of border controls. The first initiative was the elaboration of the common document “European city of Frankfurt– Słubice – state of play, tasks and perspectives” on the future actions for cooperation in the cross-border conurbation. At the same time, Frankfurt and Słubice, along with other municipalities on both sides of the border, decided to create the Pro Europa Viadrina Euroregion in 1993. In 1994, the two cities produced a common planning document covering the whole cross-border urban area. During this period, the two municipalities started to organise meetings between the mayors and municipal councils. Ten years later, the towns produced a programme for cooperation and the joint development of a European City. They then participated in the “City Twins Cooperation Network” within the framework of Interreg IIIC. From 2008 to 2010, the cross-border conurbation was a partner in the URBACT “EGTC” project, which has helped to clarify the role of actors in cooperation and develop a strategy for joint governance. (Mission Operationelle Transfrontalière, 2015).

The level of social integration in Frankfurt (Oder) – Słubice is considered rather low. Language and cultural barriers as well as the short tradition of borderland operation cause the lack of non-commercial contacts. Because of this, the relationship between Germany and Poland has remained mainly commercial, with the exception of academic circles (Dudek, et al, 2014). The mental borders between Polish and German borderlanders are determined by historical distrust and economic disparities. Several scholars who have written on recent Polish-German cooperation remarked that for true cooperation to develop between Poland and Germany, historical distrust and economic disparities must be overcome (Brym, 2011).

In order to present main features of the identity in this border region, the paper refers to a work of a research group (Budach et al, 2014), who conducted 10 interviews in Frankfurt (Oder) and 10 in Słubice about the cultural identity and the relations with people from the other side of the border. They also asked how people express their identity and what it means to be Polish in Słubice or German in Frankfurt (Oder). They interviewed 14 women and 6 men, 25 questions have been prepared in Polish and German language. The field work was done at the 13th of May 2014. This research offers a lot of interesting information about the people’s cultural background and about trans-border cooperation. This kind of close neighbouring across the border leads often to involuntary integration. One of the main conclusions is that the most important barrier for better integration is the language barrier between Polish and German. Only a few people can talk both languages and translation is needed during

cooperation projects. For example, in Frankfurt only 8% of people study Polish. That creates a lot of challenges in terms of cooperation between Ślubice and Frankfurt (Oder). This research also revealed that people of Frankfurt (Oder) and Ślubice think that cooperation between both towns is an important part of living in the borderland. Both, Poles and Germans consider the Polish-German relations as positive. Cooperation between the towns produces cultural benefits and improves the communication across the borderline. This study also shows that Germans might see Polish people and the land itself less developed than Germany and that might cause some conflicts in cooperation. People on both sides of the river mentioned that the cultural identity is important but they only talked about their own cultural and national identity. There is no real common borderland identity in Frankfurt (Oder) and Ślubice. People of both cities think that the open border is important because it is easier if people are living and working in the other town. People also think that the border area is an advantage and possibility for both sides. All in all, nevertheless that the border is open and there are a lot of cooperations across the border, people see themselves either Polish or German. Maybe in the future if the border crossing cooperation continues there is a possibility that some kind of common border identity might be born (Budach et al, 2014).

Conclusion

The paper was looking for the answers, why the identity is so specific in the cases of border regions, how the cross-border integration can link to the spatial identity and how the level of integration can influence the identity of the inhabitants of the borderland.

First of all, the space-related identity is an important topic in border areas, because of more reasons. Firstly, the borders have identity producing functions and secondly, they are symbols of social institutions and power relations (Paasi, 1998). Thus, elements of the identity can be different compared to non-borderland areas. Because the border regions are even not so homogeneous, they are very distinct from the aspects of the level of integration; the paper investigated firstly the selected border areas from this point of view, after that from the aspect of the identity. Summarizing, we can say that spatial integration among the examined border areas is growing in all of cases, especially thanks to several EU supported projects and economic differences (e.g. property prices, wages, etc.) but its current level and intensity is rather different. Based on the scientific literature, the spatial integration is stronger in the Öresund and Basque region, where there are not really cultural gaps, because the Danes and Swedes belong to Scandinavian culture, furthermore the Basque community is also more or less homogeneous (apart from smaller national specificities). So, they are traditionally closer to each other, which can be a crucial factor in the integration process.

This higher stage of integration can support the emergence of a common regional identity. This is proven by the fact that the concept of one common region enjoys strong support among the Öresund Region's residents. In the Basque region, an increasing number of inhabitants now cross the frontier regularly and numerous economic changes have taken place. The possibilities of the preserving of Basque identity are rather different in the two sides of the border; the Spanish Basque community with larger political autonomy has more favorable position in this regard than the French Basques. Frankfurt (Oder) – Ślubice can be considered to be the most lagging compared to the other two border regions, because of language and cultural barriers as well as the short tradition of borderland operation. In this region, the mental borders are determined by historical distrust and economic disparities. Moreover, Germans might see Polish people and land less developed than Germany and that might cause some conflicts in cooperation. To sum up, because of weaker integration, there is not a common borderland identity in Frankfurt (Oder) and Ślubice.

All in all, we can accept the hypothesis of the paper, which assumed that the population can identify better with that borderland, where physical and mental borders have less or no importance, than people living in separated border regions. In addition, the paper did not examine how the economic situation of the border regions can influence the level of integration and therefore the emergence of a common borderland identity. The above investigated border areas are rather distinct from this point of view as well. It can be a topic of further research, whether the economically most developed border areas have

more chance to share a common borderland identity, or the less developed, rural, peripheral areas are able to build up it.

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Proposal for an Analysis Framework: Which Internationalization Strategy for the Whole Company Product-Brand?

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The objective of this article is to present an inventory of tools analyzing the different factors which impact on the internationalization of companies and to revisit the different internationalization strategies of organizations on global level, products in particular and brands specifically.

Faced with the standardization of processes and quality standards which led to the unification of products, the brand intervenes as an inimitable competitive advantage.

However, at the present time, the brand as a marketing branch has not adopted all that merits inclusion and has overlooked much of the utility of this discipline. Made in France, Italy, China..., the companies do not know borders any more. Several questions can be addressed such as which strategy to internationalize a business. Which marketing approach to develop a product in a foreign market? Which strategy to improve a brand internationally?

Keywords: Internationalization, Brand Strategy, Internationalization strategies.

Introduction

Globalization was long reduced to its commercial aspect, until the 1960s, with the appearance of multinationalization (Michalet, 2004). The paradigm of international configuration remains bound to the concept of specialization based on free trade (Smith 2004). From the 1980s, the emergence of new applications in various fields including information, communications, and technology has opened new routes to globalization to navigate towards international and multinational configurations...

Globalization refers to the convergence of markets around the world, through the action of a new form of enterprise, the "global firm" (T Levitt 1983). If large companies have affirmed themselves in a global market, what about the Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)? The interest generated by SMEs has become a global phenomenon (Torres, 1999). Indeed, during the last three decades we witness the emergence of an impressive body of research on the theme of the internationalization of SMEs (Torres, 1999; McDougall and Oviatt, 2000; Lu and Beamish 2001; Fillis, 2001; Hutchinson et al., 2005; Chtourou, 2006; Doole et al., 2006; Ruzzier et al, 2006).

Globalization from the marketing angle is characterized by significant environmental changes stimulated by workout effects. To live in America and to consume Chinese product becomes current. However, this phenomenon affects indirectly local businesses, which are facing strong competition of foreign companies. Thus, with globalization, local competition has been extended to an international competition (Croué 2012). In this context, developing a competitive advantage in an international environment (Porter 1990) has become a necessity. But beyond the internationalization of the entity, the main question is which approach can be adopted to internationalize the product, while taking into account the importance of the brand which is considered as an inimitable competitive advantage.

Several studies have discussed the internationalization strategies of companies and products, but only few works have been devoted to the part relating to the brand. Branding is considered as a young practice compared to marketing (Croué, 2012). Thus the internationalization of SMEs, known by its multi-dimensionality, cannot be developed from a single angle. This present article summarizes the different strategies of internationalization and develops a new approach associated with all business,

product and brand. The goal is to identify and recognize the theoretical approaches describing the SME internationalization process according to each of the three elements of the set (Company - Product - Brand); to establish in the second time a confrontation between different strategies already initiated and develop a comprehensive and synthetic model for the process of internationalization in the three cited elements.

Theoretical framework

Traditional approaches of internationalization of enterprises:

The environment of the 21st century became complex and dynamic. Emerging countries such as BRICS are countries where business dynamics is changing rapidly (E.KARSAKLIAN, 2009). Thus, the decision to internationalize the company in this context becomes a necessity rather than a choice.

Before beginning the subject, it is judicious to have a definition of internationalization, however, several authors have contributed to this purpose, each one according to his approach, we will take as reference Mercier 2013, who presents the internationalization as an irreversible revolution in the behavior of different actors tackle the economic and social survival, behavior dictated by an awareness of the needs of the inhabitants of the planet. This definition includes several aspects which converge towards a common major direction to attest that the environmental changes leads to satisfy a global demand rather than local.

The traditional current internationalization of SMEs, has developed three main approaches that explain the internationalization process for each period. The diagram below shows these approaches.

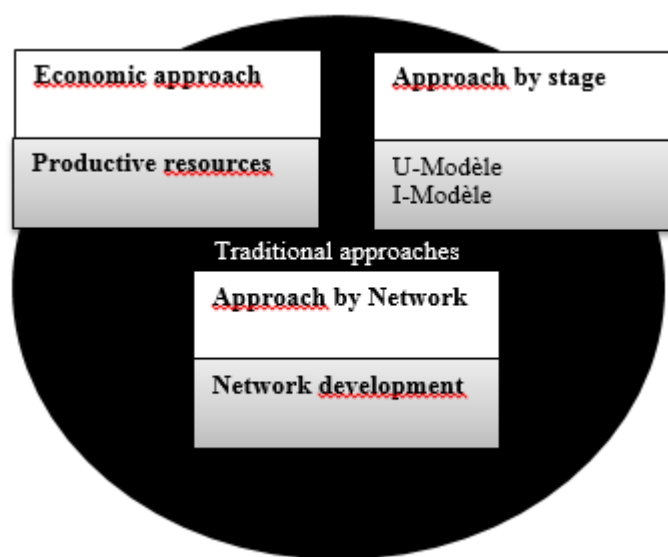


Figure 1: Traditional approaches of the internationalization process (Realized by our care)

The success of these approaches is not to demonstrate, but behind, several criticisms was raised. The table below shows the overall context and the major critical advanced for each approach.

| Approaches | Concept | Critics |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| Economic approach | <p>The tangible and intangible resources encourage companies to expand their markets (Penrose 1959)</p> <p>The theory of transaction costs is a choice between externalization and internationalization (Williamson 1975)</p> <p>The eclectic OLI paradigm (Dunning 1988) emphasizes three advantages that explain the internationalization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Intangible resources of the company * Location Advantages * Internationalization Benefits | <p>The economic approach only explains the process of international business development partially without taking into account the specificities of the SMEs.</p> <p>Short-term vision rather than long-term</p> |
| Approach by stage | <p>The aim is to study the internationalization of SMEs. Two models were developed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * UPSSALA model (U-model) Johanson & Valhon 1977; it is based on two concepts, the learning process that forms through the experience and the psychological distance, the less it is, the more successful will be confirmed. * Innovation model (model I) (Bilkey Teaser 1977) is based on the adoption of a new product. (Roger 1962) | <p>The path of internationalization steps are not necessarily respected by all companies. The failure of this approach to explain certain behaviors of SME internationalization (Coviello and McAuley, 1999; Gemser et al., 2004; Li et al., 2004; Westhead et al., 2004; Pla-Barber and Escriba- Esteve, 2006) paved the way for other explanations such as the network approach.</p> |
| Network Approach | <p>This approach focuses on the importance of the firm in its network.</p> <p>Internationalization is therefore defined as a network which is developed through trade relations with other countries. For this, three stages are developed by Johanson and Mattson (1988): extension, penetration, and integration.</p> | <p>The main constraint of this approach is the limited resources.</p> |

Table 1: Traditional approaches of internationalization of SMEs (Realized by our care)

To gather all these approaches, it is important to incorporate a framework hence the concept resource - competence (Laghzaoui, 2009)

To understand the approach of the internationalization of SMEs, crossing the last three approaches is essential. By good control of resources - skills, the company can internationalize without following the classic stages.

The economic approach focuses on organizational capabilities (Creation); the phased approach developed around experiential learning, the network approach resides in relations with abroad. All these approaches implicitly include the two concepts: resource and competence. The resources - skills have an important role in the internationalization process. These resources and skills can be stimuli as they can be barriers. These are also major elements to the strategic, organizational and markets choices. This proposal also leads to put the resources and skills of SMEs at the heart of the analysis.

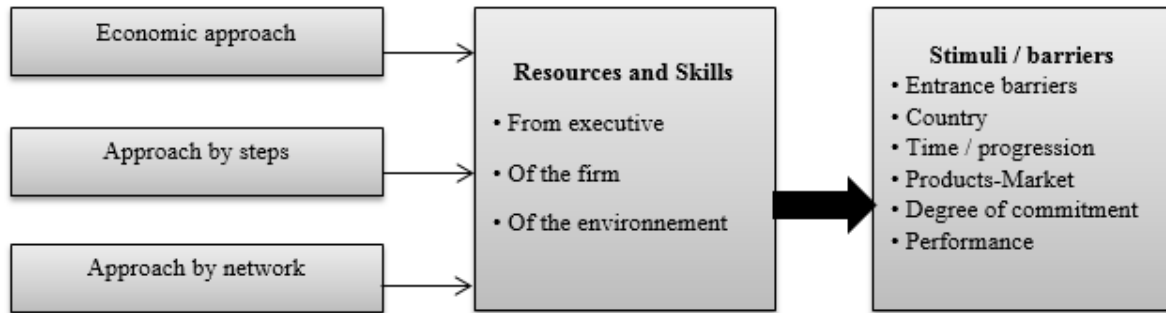


Figure 2: Resources and skills and internationalization dimensions (Laghzaoui 2009)

Beyond the traditional approach, the aspects of internationalization of SMEs

The dynamics of the international business is characterized by a ripple effect, in other words a company wishing to internationalize its network will lead with its suppliers and customers; we talk about the environmental mutation.

Companies that oppose the internationalization are enclosing to a local market and remain under pressure of the local suppliers that have a limited offer in terms of quality and cost.

Among the catalysts of internationalization, we found the style of management, the organizational dynamic based on the company's activities, and the organizational learning and administrative inheritance (exceeding the rigidity of administrative processes) (E.KARSAKLIAN, 2009).

The decision of internationalization according to Autio and al. (2000) is related to two factors: proactive factors, which are linked to the attractiveness of foreign markets (low cost, availability of MO, low legislation ...) and reactive factors, bound to the constraints of the local market (high cost, high competition, and organizational crisis).

The market study as a whole is paramount; it presents a double-edged sword: the opportunity of developing prospects and the difficulty of analysis facing a large market.

E. Karsaklian (2009) presented the internationalization process in four stages. Beginning with the national approach, the company focuses on its domestic market without thinking about internationalization. In the second phase, the company uses export or transfer licenses to sell its products abroad; we talk about the penetration of foreign markets. This stage is an important step to decide the future of the companies if they will move to a more advanced stage, or return to its original position and be restricted in a national market. The third phase is based on regional integration; the markets are not dispersed but grouped according to a regional system which simplifies the movement of products. The fourth and the last stage is the globalization, it is characterized by an opening in a global market.

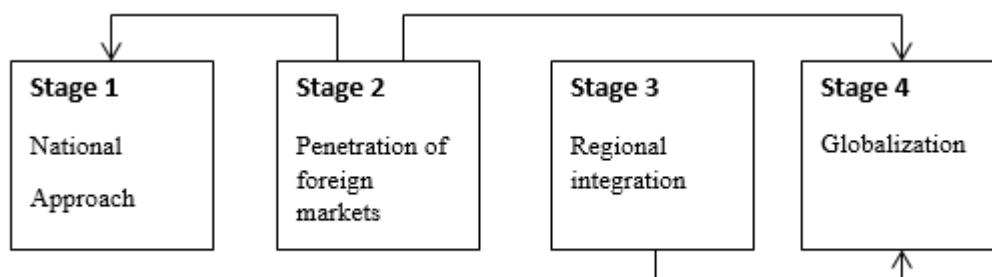


Figure 3: Company's internationalization process (E.KARSAKLIAN 2009)

From the internationalization of the firm towards the internationalization of the product:

The internationalization of the company covered in the previous section, showed us the different approaches used and their evolution. If these processes have had their share of successes, criticisms raised are mainly explained by the technological change, the increasing rivalry and the open borders. Internationalizing a company is not simple but complex case, which involves a multidimensional study. Thus in the marketing angle, what's hiding behind "the internationalization of firm"? If the leader sees a structure that transcends borders, the consumer sees the product.

To simplify the concepts, the internationalization of the company from a marketing point is reflected by the internationalization of goods (Product / Service) to a potential market beyond the borders to satisfy a request, or to reply to an existing or anticipated need.

According to Pasco-Berho (2002), product internationalization is a sequence of steps that allows a company to achieve a progressive learning in a foreign market. The product policy to adopt in an international market is a strategic component that can conduct to the success or failure of the company. Certainly a product that does not consider the local needs and which has a contradictory culture comparing to the host country will be in decline phase before the launch phase. Hence the importance of the strategic study through the Segmentation - Targeting – Positioning model that comes to direct the operational side and therefore the product marketing which is a component of the mix marketing.

Studying the product policy, is based on studying of a set of variables. According to Croué, product marketing is based on the study of political lines, brands, and positioning. For E.Jerom & McCarthy 1960, politics encompasses product design, ergonomics, technology, utility, the analgesic potency, value, quality, brand and warranty. Kotler introduced the three levels of the product policy. First, the heart of the product which is the good or service, the second level includes the packaging, design, quality, brand and features. And finally the third level includes installation, after sales services, warranty and delivery.

Through the contribution of these three authors, we can synthesized the elements that impact the decision of the product policy in two points: The visual point, which includes all the visible elements that the consumer can see to distinguish the product, like the design, ergonomics, technology, packaging, and materials elements ... and the mental point, which has the purpose of strengthening the visible elements by developing intangible variables such as product quality, value, brand, warranty, and annex services.

The product is not eternal. Developed by Verenon in (1966), the product life cycle is important to decide about the strategies to adopt and how to introduce goods in a foreign market. Indeed a product reaching its declining phase has two solutions: the destruction of the product or a founding a new market where it will be in the launch phase. The company in this situation will aim to find profitable markets offering opportunities to the product.

If a market presents an opportunity it also presents a threat to manage. Croué compiled the constraints of the internationalization of products saying they are based on two aspects: the internal constraints which include the financial resources, production constraint of relocation and logistics, and external constraints, namely sociocultural and political characteristics of the host country, its technological evolution, the adaptation or standardization strategy, and the degree of competition existing on the market. For a good positioning in a foreign market, the company must develop an inimitable competitive advantage we refer to the brand policy.

The marketing foundations rested on the identification of needs and desires of the markets, observing the consumer behavior in order to control their preferences, developing loyalty technique (Kelly Lazer 1962 Mc Carthy 1964 Kotler 1967). However, the brand remains the forgotten of the marketing universes (WatiN Aguard 2013)

2.3.1 The branding context

Going back to the basic foundations of the classical economic theory, especially in the conceptualization of market dynamics, the concept of "brand" was always neglected to focus on the product concept (Maillard 1991). At the time, the Industrial Revolution was oriented to two main concepts: offer and production. The major stakeholders were producers and consumers who constituted the product market (SEMPRINI).

However with the technological developments, the high production, the gradual saturation of markets, the emergence of the communication culture and openness, the media pollution, the changes in consumption behavior (SEMPRINI), we redirect to a new concept that will change the balance to thoughtful consumption. This is how the market has evolved from a product market to a brand market, giving meaning to the products due to an immaterial value.

Thus, according to SEMPRINI, the productive system is actually split into two components, two stakeholders having equal importance: the classic offer product - constitutive of the product market - and the communication offers or direction offers - constitutive of the brand market.

To set the brand, several authors have given their contributions, thus referring to the Industrial Property, the brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design or combination used to identify goods or services for a seller and differentiate them from competitors. According to Lewi, Rogliano 2007, the brand is considered as mental repair in the market, based on tangible and intangible values. Semprini (1992) refers the brand to all speeches made by all the different actors (individuals and groups) who were involved in its creation. A. Aaker 1998 is the first author who evokes the brand as an added value, certifying that it's a cognitive association that adds value to those already raised with the product.

If we gather all these thoughts, the brand presents itself as a semiotic approach as noted by A. Semprini, who comes to make sense to the product with an identity that personifies the abstract aspect.

The brand in the international market

Building a brand, and managing it becomes a real dilemma for the majority of businesses. Indeed the rigid rivalry existing, the high technological development, the market opening, the culture of exchange, the changes in consumer behavior; all these factors attest of the complexity of the mechanism.

Today, the majority of products are facing standardization of production criteria in compliance with quality standards. However, how can we differentiate between the different products in a unified approach? In this situation, the importance of developing an inimitable competitive advantage as brand became a necessity.

Brand started to take its current magnitude in these recent years, but what about the concept of the internationalization of the brand? It was only since the 1980s that the tendency of internationalizing brands has grown considerably.

According to Croué the international brand policy is a cross between the geographic dimensions, the products and their technological variations, and the customers gathered around common values. Internationalizing a brand is far from a simple reproduction on a new market, it is obviously a prior study that contextualizes a triadic analysis of the entire Company - Product and Brand.

Triadic strategy analysis

The internationalization phenomenon is not to demonstrate. However, the impact of the internationalization on a firm as structure, and the product as an answer to a specific need and the brand

as borrowing that comes to give meaning to how the product remains to be studied. The object of our study about the internationalization strategy as an overall concept will focus on a marketing analysis. Before developing the triadic analysis, it is important to demonstrate the link between the three components of the triadic strategy. Excluding all prior studies that the company must take into consideration before the internationalization decision in a strategic level, we will focus on the operational level. For consumers, internationalizing a company is the establishment of a foreign product on their local market. However, which identity should be adopted to introduce a product in a foreign market, and how to differentiate between the local and the broader product to create an inimitable advantage? Building a strong brand is the right solution. Thus, the company deciding on internationalization needs to adopt a coherent approach between its overall strategy, its product policy and branding. Hence the triadic approach.

For better analysis, we will present a summary table grouping the strategies of internationalization of all the three elements of the set. For this, we will take as reference the reflection of some authors who have contributed to this aim; to conceptualize a global model for internationalization for all the Company - Product - Brand.

| Entreprise | Produit | Marque |
|---|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Diagnostic markets 2. Segmentation and the International positioning 3. Implantation and international marketing Charles Croué, 2012 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. From the national to the international product policy 2. International Product Policy Charles Croué, 2012 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brand Portfolio 2. International brand Policy Charles Croué, 2012 |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The environmental constraints 2. State of mind 3. Couple diversity – unity Anne-Gaëlle Jolivot 2013 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The international product 2. Adaptation or standardization strategy 3. Binational management products 4. Launching Product in foreign markets Anne-Gaëlle Jolivot 2013 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Brand Portfolio 2. Local brands and global brands? 3. The transfer of brands names in foreign market Anne-Gaëlle Jolivot 2013 |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Internationalization factors 2. Strategic and competitive analysis technique 3. International implantation strategy 4. International Competition and Alliances 5. Strategic Planning and international management E.KANSAKLIAN 2009 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Product strategies 2. Launching Product in foreign markets 3. Product Lifecycle Richard Lanneyrie Sophie, Devesa, Brigitte 2013 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Export of brand 2. Conditioning Adaptation 3. Adaptation labeling Richard Lanneyrie Sophie, Devesa, Brigitte 2013 |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Motivation of internationalizing companies 2. International implantation strategy 3. Orientation system Walliser Bjorn 2011 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Aadaptation or standardization strategy 2. The impact of the country of origin Walliser Bjorn 2011 | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Characteristics and quality of brands 2. Advantage and disadvantage of the global brand 3. Transposition of a national name in an international level Walliser Bjorn 2011 |

Table 2: Factors of internationalization of the whole [Company - Product - Brand] (Realized by our care)

The triadic model: Company

On a strategic level, all the writers brought their own reflection. Croué in his work about international marketing discussed the process of internationalization.

Concerning his reflection, internationalizing a company is developed through a number of steps. Starting by the markets studies, this step is an essential phase to reduce the rate of risk, and to identify the target market before taking a decision. Companies should opt for quantitative but also qualitative studies, to understand the market requirements and to limit it geographically. The companies also study the dynamic of foreign markets through different indicators relating to the economic policy, the market assessment, or the marketing aspects. Indeed the marketing indicators are represented by the size of the market, the consumer behavior, the distribution channels, and the competitive advertising and appearance. All contribute to the study of the global market in order to define its tendencies, its opportunities and cultural differences.

The second step in the internationalization process is about the segmentation and international positioning, the international segmentation approach begins with the identification of the product and service of the company to the customer segmentation, through the identification of macro segments countries, the creation of a portfolio of selected countries to identify customer segments and potential users.

In the final stage of internationalization, the company must make a strategic decision about her implantation, either with a classic economic way, which gathers between export and commercial intermediation (indirect export) or with a classic way that involves the direct introduction of the enterprise approach, or associated approaches as franchising and management contracts. There are also settlement patterns developed such as redemption.

For E. Kansaklian the process of internationalization focuses on the managerial and organizational dynamics and also on the competitive advantage, the internationalization process starts with the identification of internal and external factors. Thus the second step is related to the environmental analysis, several strategic tools are available to managers, we cites first the life cycle of the product, which is often the cause of internationalization of the company. The BCG (Bouston Consulting Group) matrix used to locate the position of each product in the portfolio and decide on the most appropriate markets. SWOT matrix, allows identifying an overview on the internal and external situation of the company to achieve segmentation based on psychological, socioeconomic or behavioral variables. In an international segmentation, the manager must use universal criteria by combining between sociodemographic variables and cultural values. Once the segmentation is made, the manager must decide upon the implantation strategy and establish a system of performance measurement.

To achieve their goals easily, enterprises can opt for alliances to reduce international competition and develop a stronger market position. The final step in the internationalization process is about the strategic planning. This step allows the company to decide how to anticipate risks and reduce uncertainty by analyzing the internal and external aspects, defining objectives for each market with their action plan. So the strategy should be formalized and communicated to facilitate teamwork. It should be noted that the strategic plan is not static but adapted according to market developments.

Anne-Gaëlle Jolivot mentioned the internationalization of the company according to three concepts: the complexity of the environment, the mindset, and the diversity uniqueness.

The complexity of the environment requires an analysis of the international marketing environment, two variables are presented, the controllable variables on which the company may have an impact (suppliers- Competitors ...) and uncontrollable variables related to the external environment (Politics - Economy ...). Thus the definition of a global strategy depends on internal and external analysis that the company carries to a foreign market. Market segmentation depends on cultural variables creating an ethical homogeneity.

The state of mind is the second factor mentioned in the internationalization process, it falls within the cultural sensitivity, and the global strategy of the company is adapted to the country culture in order to reduce the difference between the markets and to increase the degree of acceptability. Companies are now in front of two important strategic choices: Standardization - Adaptation.

For Bjorn, the company's internationalization is discussed in four points, first the study of international markets to identify opportunities and threats, secondly the business motivation, which are linked either to the saturation of markets, the availability of resources across borders, and reducing the country risk. On a third plane the implementation according to the location of production, on the home market, it is a direct or indirect export and for a foreign market it is a license agreement, franchise, joint venture or subsidiary. Once the implementation method is identified, the international company is obliged to choose a referral system, even if it is an ethnocentric organization (centered on national culture), polycentric (considering markets as equal) regiocentric (the markets are divided to homogeneous groups), or geocentric (global market).

The triadic model: Product

The product is considered as the base of the brand development. We cannot introduce a strong brand without high product quality.

According to Croué the internationalization of the product depends on the internationalization of the range which is a component of the product policy. Thus the company is allowed to choose which product (range) for which market. To define the strategy the company takes into account the cultural and economic dimension of the market.

To develop an international range, the company is faced with an extraction policy, the construction of a range for a foreign market is done through an existing line while adapting it to the requirements of target market.

However, discrepancies between the objective and the result are frequent. To deal with it, the company has to calculate the coverage rate, which has rapport between the products of a source range and those extracted. The aim is to conduct a redevelopment by canceling some ranges and launching others. The concept of innovation is not to neglect by Croué.

The constraints are very frequent in the internationalizing product process. The first obstacle can be the price which is strongly impacted by the adaptation strategy; the second is related to the product design and also the conditioning that must comply with the country's culture and consumer tastes.

Once the range is selected, and the constraints identified, the product launch policy can be sequential (taking space in time between the launch of two products), or simultaneous (introducing two products at the same time or within a period of less than a year). Once the implantation mode is determined, the company goes for the segmentation and positioning after analyzing the skills of competitors and identifying the competitive advantage.

Another reflection on the internationalization of product policy has been advanced by Anne-Gaëlle Jolivot. Beginning with the right strategy to adopt, the product remains in the dilemma between the standardization and adaptation strategy. Thus companies are studying the product policy through three attributes: Physical variables which concern the composition, shape, size, weight, technical performance, colors, packaging and product packaging. Service variables, which include repair, maintenance, installation, user manuals, technical support, delivery, and warranty. And symbolic variables, which concerns associations linked to the image of the country of origin. Once the strategy is determined, the company must decide the right time of the product implantation into the foreign markets. And here we are faced with two strategies already raised by Croué, namely the sequential and simultaneous strategy.

From the perspective of Bjorn, product internationalization takes into account two elements, namely the strategic choice and the impact of the host country. The effect of the country indicates that the product image is strongly affected by the origin of the country but also the brand, the image, and the quality. Thus the client in the decision process considers the country as a global endpoint reducing the risk of purchase.

For Richard Lanneyrie Sophie, Devesa, Brigitte, the product internationalization process starts with the product selection by determining the offer, the range and the characteristics. The second step is represented by the dilemma that oppose companies namely the choice between a strategy of standardization or adaptation. The choice of strategy depends on some variables such the local regulations, the habits of consumption, and the cultural specificity. In a third phase, companies decide on the implantation strategy to adopt.

The cycle of international life product has an important role in the choice of the strategy. The launch phase allows economies of scale. The growth phase attests to the emergence of new competitors. The company can opt for a relocation of production to reduce costs and therefore the price will be more competitive. The phase of maturity and decline noted the critical situation in which the product is located; it is at this stage when the company begins to move to foreign markets.

However, the internationalization of the company in general and the product in particular must be accompanied by an adapted content and a referral message so as to be in harmony with the host country. Here is the role of the brand strategy.

The triadic model: Brand

Referring to Croué, the brand policy has become a central axis of the company's marketing strategy to build a strong brand portfolio that includes the entire product line and range in relation to their positioning image. Internationally, we can identify three brand dimensions: The regional, local, and global brand.

Jolivot discussed the brand portfolio and presented two strategies, the single-brand strategy and the multi-brand strategy. The migration of the local brand to a global brand as Croué raised, depends on different strategies whether local, regional or global. A local brand is marketed in a single country. A regional brand is sold on a defined geographical area. An international brand is aspiring to be presented and managed internationally, but with possible adaptations, we talk about the global brand.

The brands name has an important impact on their presence in a foreign market. According to Guidère 2000 there are four techniques to transfer the name in a foreign market. The transplantation strategy consist of keeping the same name without any adaptation, the literal translation often used for a generic brand, transliteration based on a phonetic correspondence if possible in the graphics world, and transmutation, which consists of an adaptation of the original name for the target audience, in order to preserve associations to the brand's products.

According to Bjorn, international brand management is a cross between three factors. First, the function and quality brand giving attributes to the product. Brand needs to be memorable, pronounceable without negative connotation. The second point relates to the advantages and disadvantages of the global brand. The global brand has many advantages such as the cost minimization, the strong reference on a large scale but it has also some disadvantages when a global brand doesn't respect the specificities of the culture of the host country. This is the dilemma between the standardization and adaptation strategy. The third point is about the brand transposition from national to international level; companies can opt for a simplification of the name, a partial modification, transliteration, or new name to create an international name.

Richard Lanneyrie Sophie, Devesa, Brigitte, attest that the international brand management dependent on export conditions, the brand name should be easily pronounced, memorable, and should reflect good corporate image. Then there are the packaging export requirements, it must respect local customs, distribution and regulatory and climatic constraints, and finally the labeling export conditions which must comply with local and the language and culture of the host country.

5 The internationalization strategy: Triadic model

After a reinterpretation of the various authors' reflections, we propose a synthetic model regrouping all the three elements of the triadic strategy. This model presents the internationalization strategy for the company, the product and the brand.

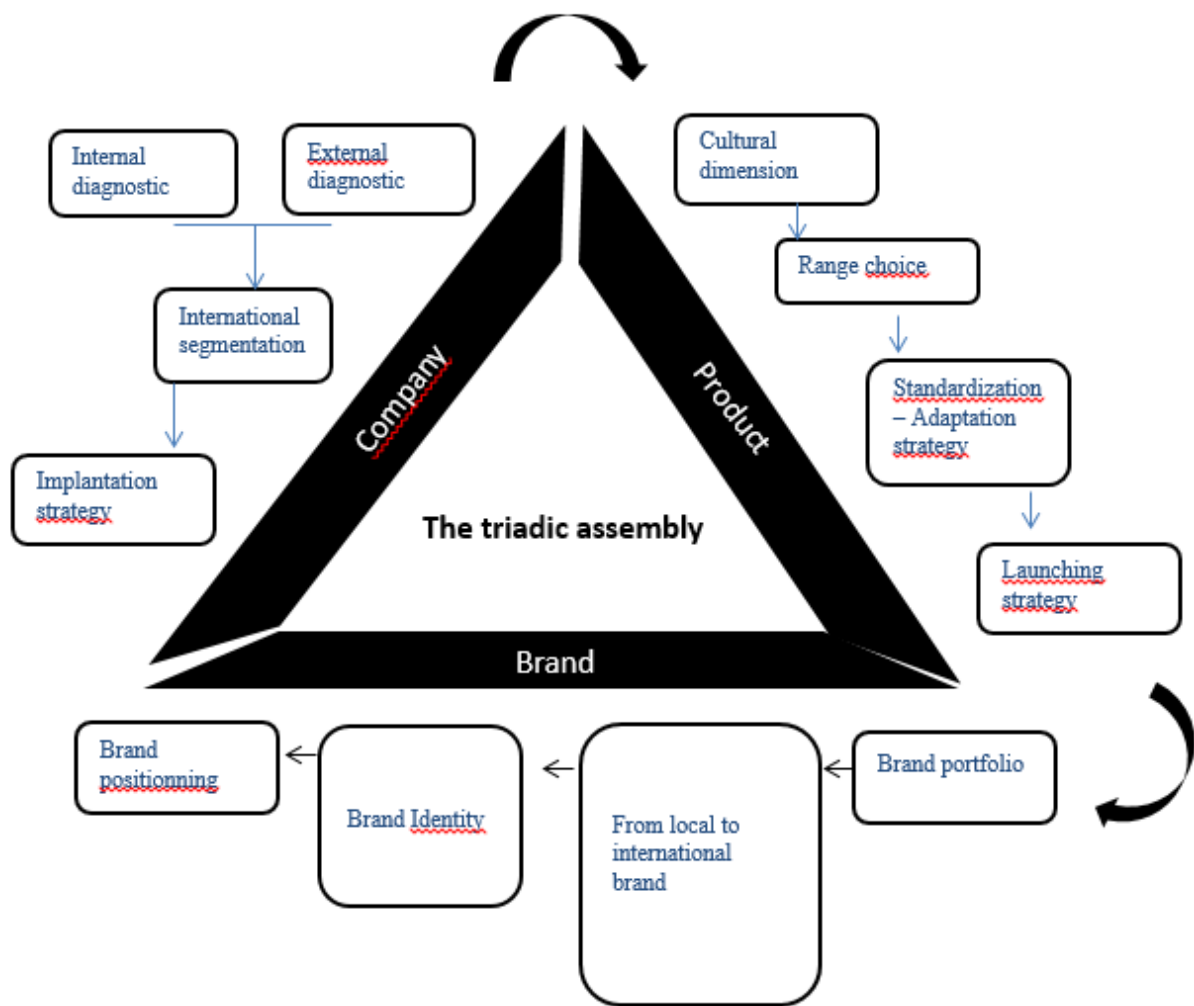


Figure 4: Triadic model of internationalization strategy (Realized by our care)

Internationalization is a complex phenomenon where several study topics are to be considered. And consistency should be ensured between the three elements: Company - Product and Brand. The model proposed below provides a logical connection between the three elements of the triadic strategy. It summarizes the reflection of the authors already cited.

Starting with the Company component, the internal and external factors are important indicators that help to identify the opportunities and threats. The internal factors present a global overview of the company situation; however the external factors present the environmental situation. These studies help companies to identify their potential markets to define a clear strategy of segmentation and positioning, and then a suitable mode of presence.

Once this step is completed it is essential to focus on the cultural aspect of the target countries to identify and understand the needs and the expectations of the consumers. In this level, companies have to select an appropriate range to internationalize in the foreign market related to the cultural dimension. The standardization or adaptation strategy remains a dilemma for a lot of companies, for this, it is important to make a connection between the company and product studies. Once we identify the product policy, we move to the brand strategy.

It is wise to choose carefully the brand name. In fact the brand strategy should be in harmony with the company and product strategy and should be also adapted to the host country culture. Brand develops an inimitable advantage for companies in an international market where rivalry is rigid. Hence the

importance of the brand identity, which gathers the company values to develop a strong positioning in the consumer's mind.

Conclusion

Globalization has had a great impact on changing the business climate. The markets are not in a unilateral or bilateral approach but in a dynamic approach. The international phenomenon has become obvious. How can a business open a foreign market and achieve its internationalization? This is the central question addressed in this present article. From the marketing angle, the approach of the triadic analysis of the entire Company - Product - Brand brings an answer.

This theoretical study presents the different approaches of internationalization of the company to demonstrate the link between the structure and the product which is the base of the brand development. Thus, these three components build the triadic strategy. Thus, the objective of this article is to draw a comprehensive model of internationalization of all Company- Product- Brand through a reviewing of reflection of some authors.

Developing a strong international brand require global reflection. In fact, there is a connection between the different elements of the triadic approach. Each component has an important role in the success of the internationalization process. The company strategy depends on the result of the different market studies, the segmentation and the mode of implantation. The product policy focuses on the study of the cultural dimension to decide on the appropriate range and therefore the adapted strategy. The brand approach is the result of the company and product strategy. It has an essential role in a foreign market where the rivalry is so rigid. The harmony existing between these three components is the key to success of the internationalization process.

Internationalize a company is a complex process that involves the study of all the components of the triadic strategy in order to develop a coherent strategy with which the firm addresses the market.

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How Does Cause-Related Marketing Work in the Case of Stigmatized Products?

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Cause Related Marketing (CRM) can be understood as a marketing tool in which the company associates with a cause for multiple benefits for both the cause and the company. In 2015 companies in the United States alone spent more than \$ 1.92 billion sponsoring social causes (IEG, 2015). There has been a large increase in sponsorship spending on social causes from stigmatized companies (e.g., tobacco and alcohol) which are major sponsors for sports (FMM, 2015). In stigmatized industries, companies may pursue CSR initiatives as a form of insurance to temper public criticism, manage a crisis, or change their negative image (Porter & Kramer, 2006). Although stigmatized industries have become more active in conducting CRM, it is still unclear whether or not the benefits of CRM can be extended to companies with stigmatized products and whether or not the CRM programs of stigmatized products are effective.

The Persuasion Knowledge Model assumes that consumers' existing knowledge structure is very important to interpret and evaluate marketing actions taken by companies (Friestad & Wright, 1994). It suggests preexisting attitudes and information of the industry may influence a positive or negative attitude toward the companies. Research regarding the influence of attitude toward the industry on consumer responses to CRM programs of stigmatized products still has not been well established. Thus, this research develops and tests theoretical model of consumer responses to CRM programs based on theories and studies of Persuasion. The model investigates the role of attitude toward the industry in determining consumer perception of company motives and subsequent corporate credibility and attitude toward the company.

A total of 240 students were used for this test. This study used a fictitious company that manufacturers two stigmatized products (tobacco and alcohol). A short written scenario was viewed by the participants. Nicotine Anonymous and Alcoholics Anonymous were used assuming that most participants would be able to easily recognize these for stigma related causes. The AIDS cause was chosen as the stigma has an unrelated cause with respect to both tobacco and alcohol. Following the two-stage approach of model validation, this study tested the measurement validity of each construct appearing in the structural model and estimated the hypothesized model. The overall fit of the structural model was highly acceptable: CFI=.957, TLI=.950, RMSEA=.069.

The results indicate that attitude toward the industry has a negative effect on the congruence between the company and the cause (H1) ($\beta = -.33$, $t = -4.13$) and positive effect on altruistic motives (H2) ($\beta = .65$, $t = 8.87$). The results show that the congruence between the company and the cause has a negative effect on altruistic motives (H3) ($\beta = -.26$, $t = -3.73$) while it has no significant effect on corporate credibility (H4) ($\beta = -.042$, $t = -.56$). H5 which proposed the effect of altruistic motives on corporate credibility was supported ($\beta = .66$, $t = 7.40$). The impact of corporate credibility on attitude toward the company was supported (H6) ($\beta = .53$, $t = 7.25$). Upon testing and analysis, all the hypotheses except H4 were supported. In the model comparison between the Tobacco and Alcohol companies, a significant difference was found in H1. The findings indicate that attitude toward the industry has a negative influence on company-cause congruence of the Alcohol company while it has no significant effect on the Tobacco company.

The results offer important implications for marketing theory and practice. This study suggests that consumers who have a positive attitude toward the industry perceive CRM programs to be more altruistic and socially responsible, consequently they perceive the company as being credible. These

results prove the important role of attitude toward the industry. Striving to create a positive reputation and favorable image is much more salient in stigmatized industries than in non-stigmatized industries. It is confirmed that perceived altruistic motives are a very important mediating variable between the attitude toward the industry and corporate credibility. The results provide insight on sponsorship for manufacturers of stigmatized products and shows that they need to make a greater effort to generate altruistic perceptions and consumer assessment about sponsor motives. It also proves that consumer reactions to CRM programs differed in stigmatized product categories. Based on the results, it is intriguing that the tobacco company generated more negative consumer responses than the alcohol company. It is possible that the consumers perceived their attitudes toward the tobacco industry as a societal rather than an individual's point of view. Another explanation is that tobacco has received a great deal of negative publicity through mass media and cultural acceptance of smoking is decreasing in the U.S. (Sly et al., 2000). For this reason, the tobacco companies may not be able to derive expected benefits from CRM campaigns.

Local Democracy and Representation in Municipal Council

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Turkey is a country which has been attempting to generate its political culture through modern political institutions and behaviors since 1839. The Tanzimat is considered to be the starting point particularly as a period when the concept of citizenship as well as local and regional councils emerged. After a long cessation in participatory politics, some significant developments took place in 1950s. The laws promulgated after 2003 aimed to promote democracy at the local level. Participatory behavior is regarded as one of the basic indicators of civilization in the literature of political sciences. Realization of participation is considered as the main criterion of citizenship and the quality of citizenship is evaluated in accordance with the behavior of participation. The most important indicator of participation is voting. Appointment of mayors and municipal council members through voting on the local level refers to meeting one of the essential requirements of participatory democracy. The municipal council constitutes one of the most important decision-making mechanisms where local democracy is practiced (Çukurçayır, 2012: 136-138). We analyzed interviews with Konya Metropolitan Municipality Council members from the perspective of participation and local democracy. Studies about municipal councils in Konya are rather limited in the literature. A survey was carried out with municipality personnel in 2000 which gives some clues about municipal works. This study reflects that the question about “the ruling party in council decisions” was answered as “Refah Partisi (Welfare Party)” with an 86% rate (Keleş & Toprak, 2000: 159). Currently, the Metropolitan Municipality Council members present us with a homogenous structure due to the limited number of oppositional members. Decision-making processes take place under the supervision of the “ruling party”, and more importantly, the “mayor”. In a micro-scale study, it was found that the “mayor” and “bureaucracy” were more effective than the council.

Recent legal developments have strengthened this scene. Turkey has entered a new phase that profoundly affected all the administrative system with the Law no 6360 executed since 2013. When this law was a draft, it was criticized for “weakening local democracy” (Çukurçayır, 2012), “leading to extending the scale and making representation and participation more difficult and meaningless” (Görmez, 2012). However, these criticisms were disregarded and the law code entered into force, making metropolitan municipalities the executor of the Turkish administration system. In consideration of this, it is of vital importance for administrative reforms in Turkey to watch the system closely.

In the fieldwork we conducted in Konya, almost all interviewed members were members of the metropolitan municipality council except for one who was member of the opposition party and not a member to any commission. Three of the interviewed members were the commission chairmen and the remaining six were commission members, while one was a council member. Job distribution of interviewed members was as follows: One dentist, one housewife, one retired officer, three lawyers, one salesperson, two architects, and a financial advisor. Nine of the members were university graduates and one was a high school graduate.

Being one of the rapidly growing and attracting cities of Turkey, Konya has been a metropolitan municipality since 1989. Only three mayors were appointed within the 26 years since 1989, who were Halil Ürün, Mustafa Özkafa, and the current mayor Tahir Akyürek. The first two were members of the Welfare Party Refah Partisi), while the last mayor is a member of AKP (Justice and Development Party).

This study was carried out jointly with Bilgi University Center of Migration Researches..

The understanding of conservative municipal administration which started with the Welfare Party continues with AKP today. Indeed, prior to and after 1980, mayors in Konya were from central right parties. Conservative mayors and conservative understanding in municipal administration dominated Konya, except from Ahmet Hilmi Nalçacı from the Justice Party (Adalet Partisi- AP), who was the leading actor in the construction and urbanization of Konya, and the interim regime period in 1980.

Konya is a city which has traces of a number of civilizations. However, the most important factor which draws attention to the city and bestows it its main identity is that it was the capital of the Anatolian Seljuk State in the 13th century. Konya is the largest city in Turkey in terms of the areas it covers and its population is 2 million 79 thousand according to the 2013 census (Türk, 2013: XIV). Population of the city centrum is about 1 million two hundred thousand. Konya is a nominee to become one of the most important metropolises of Turkey.

There are three district municipalities in the city centrum in Konya. Selçuklu, Meram and Karatay districts used to be in the coverage of the Metropolitan Municipality prior to March 30, 2014. However, after that date 28 more district municipalities were annexed to the borders of Metropolitan Municipality, making it almost a “regional parliament” with 131 members under the Metropolitan Municipality Council. Konya Metropolitan Municipality has the largest service area of Turkey as far as areas are concerned. While Konya Metropolitan Municipality was responsible for delivering services to an area of about four thousand meter squares before its service domain was extended to the city borders, this area grew by 10 times after the Law 6360 was adopted, and Konya Metropolitan Municipality became responsible for rendering services to almost 41 thousand kilometer square of urban and rural area. The Metropolitan Municipality Council is comprised of 131 members, 16 of whom support the Nationalist Movement Party (Milliyetçi Hareket Partisi- MHP), two of whom support People’s Democracy Party (Halkların Demokratik Partisi-HDP), two of whom support the Republican People’s Party (Cumhuriyet Halk Partisi- CHP) and 110 of whom support AKP. As is seen, AKP has a large majority and dominance in the metropolitan municipality council.

Table 1: Distribution of Konya BŞB Council Members to political parties

| Political Party | BŞB (Metropolitan Municipality) Mayor Vote rate | Municipal Council membership Vote rate(%) | BŞB Council Members’ Number | |
|-----------------|--|--|-----------------------------|--------|
| | | | Members from districts | Majors |
| AKP | 64,3 | 60,9 | 82 | 28 |
| MHP | 18,5 | 21,9 | 13 | 3 |
| SP | 7,5 | 5,9 | 0 | 0 |
| CHP | 5,7 | 6,6 | 1 | 1 |
| BDP | 1,9 | 2,2 | 3 | 0 |
| TOTAL | | | 131 | |

Interviews of Konya Metropolitan Municipality Council’s Commission Members

All of Konya Metropolitan Municipality Council members are supporters of the ruling party. Nine commissions were established under the Metropolitan Municipality Council after March 30, 2014 elections and each of them included 7 members. None of the 56 commission members support the opposition party. There is only one woman in the commissions except the commission involved in women. The youngest commission member interviewed under this study is the female member, aged 28, who was elected for the Metropolitan Municipality Council from Selçuklu Municipality and works under the Women’s Commission. Other members belong to the middle age group. Since there are no

members from the opposition parties in commissions, we interviewed a metropolitan municipality member from the opposition (MHP) outside the commissions. In total, 10 people were interviewed. Appointments were arranged with the help of acquaintances. Some of the members rejected the interview request in direct meetings. Some of the members who rejected to be interviewed stated they were too busy as businessmen, and others did not come to the interview although they accepted to meet.

We asked for the opinion of council members with regard to

- their jobs,
- political backgrounds,
- approaches to the municipal system,
- local autonomy,
- perspectives on problems in rural and urban areas,
- ways of interaction with shareholders in decision-making processes,
- relations with the party they belong to,
- perspectives over local democracy and local representation, and
- comparison of the new municipal model with the former one.

We summarize the outcomes of interviews as follows:

1- De facto ruling structure beside formal processes, those who are effective in decision-making processes:

Almost all interviewed metropolitan municipal council members mentioned directly or indirectly of a single-actor structure in the decision-making mechanism. The agenda is determined by the mayor in line with the information and data from relevant administrative units. Subjects received from department heads are selected, put into the council agenda, and then sent to commissions. Some members asserted that decisions must be discussed in the council, that the council still failed to do so, but needed to learn this. Being emphasized by some of the members, this issue is considered important for a “healthier” decision-making as they refer to it. Considering that all commission members are from the same party, it can be underlined that the request for operation of participatory processes in the council is strong.

Negotiations or discussion methods are rarely employed in decision-making. We drew the overall conclusion that district municipal council were more open to discussions, but the 130 members in the Metropolitan Municipality could not practice such opportunities to discuss and negotiate, or even if they did, it was rather superficial.

It is understood that commissions have generally failed to operate since March 30, 2014, some meet only once and fail to make any decisions in the meantime. It was seen that only some of the commissions worked effectively (2-3 meetings), which were planning- budget, public works, and women commissions.

A rather interesting case was that the Supervision Commission had not been established under the Metropolitan Municipality Council, which points to the fact that the generally expected democratic functionality has not been provided in commission works yet.

2- Relations between the local Rule and Opposition in Metropolitan Municipality Councils

More than 60% of Konya Metropolitan Municipality Council members are composed of supporters of the ruling party and there is not even one member from the opposition party, which brings us to the conclusion that AKP is the single political power in effect in decision-making of the metropolitan municipality council. Since there are no members from the opposition, we interviewed another Metropolitan Municipality member (MHP supporter) out of the council. No problems are encountered in decision-making since AKP is dominant. All members mentioned that ruling party and opposition relations were rather good, and that the grand assembly operated flawlessly. They emphasized that opposition members in the assembly were relatively reconciliatory and conformist.

3- To what extent participatory mechanisms operate, which urban groups are influential, feudal structure, family bonds, and ethnic, sectarian and community relations of council members within the domain of city's own characteristics:

According to data from interviewed members, the participation mechanisms do not operate at all. In general, lawyers, contractors, financial advisors, dentists and housewives seen close to the ruling party were nominated by the party. Candidates generally explained that they did not make efforts to become council members, but were nominated by the party. It can be emphasized that membership to a variety of conservative foundations and associations was determinant in the selection of council members. Decisions in the Metropolitan Municipality Council are not subject to negotiation/ discussion processes and are generally taken by the "yes-no" votes. None of the interviewed council members expressed opinions about the fact that relations with a variety of conservative foundations and associations was determinant in their election or decision-making processes. Members can be said to have shown a nondiscriminatory and democratic approach against such differences.

One participation mechanism that might be effective on the local level is city councils. One of the most significant reforms made by AKP after 2003 has been the establishment of city councils. However, very trivial steps have been taken both at the municipal and at the district level since 2006, when this regulation entered into force in Konya, and after a while, processes about city councils were suspended for a while. Metropolitan Municipality's city councils fail to work. The city council held only two meetings in 2007 and 2009 for establishment purposes, and has long been pending now. All council members emphasized that city councils did not work.

As is understood from the statements of council members, meetings outside the council with informal groups (friends, religion-oriented NGOs) is common. It was mentioned that evaluations made in such meetings were not reflected on the council, but had positive impacts. Members emphasized that such relations were friendship/ fellowship-based and that informal relations were significant in evaluating problems of the city and their reflection in the council.

4- Relations of council members with diverse segments

Interviewed council members paid attention to underline that no "conflicting" or "oppositional" relations existed between themselves and other shareholders on the horizontal and vertical sections and that their relations not only with council members, but also other shareholders were generally "positive" and "harmonious".

a. Relations with the local community:

Members had significant recommendations with regard to public relations, which deserves attention. It has been emphasized that council members had problems with public relations. Some members emphasized the necessity for the Metropolitan Municipality Council or the relevant party to determine a "field of responsibility" for each member and for the members to get involved in the problems encountered in their respective fields. As council members stated, public relations are weak

and need promotion. On the other hand, it was seen that some members held monthly meetings with the mukhtars in their districts on their own initiatives. It can be said that the time members can allocate for the community is very restricted due to their occupations. We could not meet some council members although we made phone calls due to their jobs as lawyers, engineers, contractors, financial consultants, dentists, etc., while some others cancelled the appointments.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that Council members should have fields of responsibility and those who cannot allocate sufficient time for public relations due to their occupations should not be nominated as council members.

b. Relations with the party head office

Council members have seemingly no direct relations with the party head office. There are council members with kinship affinities to ministers and members of parliament. Others were elected to the council through some organizations and maintain their tasks there.

Council members were observed to have very strong ties with the political party they supported and to avoid any kind of criticism of it. Consequently, the message conveyed by interviewed commission members was as follows: "Our party understands the needs of our community well, takes appropriate decisions, and performs appropriate practices." No incompatibility was observed between council members and the party. Some council members explained that they would make any kind of sacrifice for their party, that the party was a chance for Turkey, and that they work for the sustenance of this condition.

c. Relations with the government

It was found that council members had no direct relations with the government. They underlined that they reached the relevant representatives when they needed, so there was no need for them to establish direct relations with the government.

d. Relations with the bureaucracy

Council members emphasized that they generally did not experience problems with the "municipal bureaucracy". They stated that relevant bodies of their municipality were in touch with other bureaucratic authorities, therefore there was no reason for them to establish direct relations with them. Council members mentioned they had concordant relations with all shareholders, so they did not experience problems with the bureaucracy.

5- How council members consider their own positions

Metropolitan Municipality Council members regard their position in local politics as significant. It is understood that they seem pleased of being part of a mechanism that comes up with solutions to social problems and of such processes. Council members expressed their opinions straightforward about cases that restrict their activities and when their expectances were not met, and asked for a higher level of democracy. They were observed to feel disturbed by being ineffective enough in the council and by the fact that decisions were taken solely by the mayor. Some council members were very careful in answering some questions lest they could lead to a damage to their party they supported. It was clearly seen that the idea of "What if I cause damage to the party due to what I say? I should not be conflicting with my party" was dominant. The reason for this is that even though some members criticized certain processes of the party, they asserted that this would not constitute a problem and their party and the municipality operated well, and that all problems could be resolved in time.

6- Opinions of council members about the metropolitan municipality and the new model

Members generally reflected positive opinions about the new municipality model; however, some of them stated that it had led to some obstructions in services rendered to rural areas.

a. Activities of the Metropolitan Municipality

Interviewed council members lay more importance on the activities of the Metropolitan Municipality. Commissions under the Metropolitan Municipality are not much effective. Members attend council meetings in general. Some members asserted that activities of the commission presidents were sufficient and satisfactory. Some members said that commission presidents performed the necessary activities on their behalf and regulated relations, which points to the fact that the understanding “members do not need to be much active” is predominant.

b. Opinions about the relations between Metropolitan Municipality and District Municipalities

Members generally mentioned that relations between Metropolitan Municipality and District Municipalities were pleasant. Addressing to the concordant and positive relations between the municipality and districts, and to the fact that mayors point to the problems in districts during council meetings, council members underlined a flawless operation relation. On the other hand, the state of relations between district mayors and the metropolitan municipality mayor depends on personal attitudes. In the former period, relations between some central district mayors and the metropolitan municipality mayor were tense and this situation appeared in the press more than once. In general, district mayors might complain about the metropolitan municipality mayor and the reason for this is that the metropolitan municipality discriminate between municipalities and inconveniences occurred in terms of prioritizing investments and such problems were also made known to the public. However, it must be mentioned that such problems are experienced in all metropolitan municipalities and can lead to failures in rendering public services in metropolitan municipalities.

c. How they evaluated the new regulation introduced with law no 6360

It cannot be claimed that the new system is yet totally comprehended. Most of the municipality council members regarded change as “very useful”. The reason for this was summarized as municipality budget and experts would be efficient and provide their services faster. Very few members said that locality was damaged and previous structures should not be abolished. Change of addresses of those who ask for public services might lead to halts in provision of services. Members generally attempt to welcome the new system in an optimistic manner. A significant majority referred to some problems and to the fact that they could be resolved in time. However, it is necessary to underline that members retained the worry of paying attention to avoid any statement that conflicted with the party.

The most important criticism related to this was about delays in public services rendered to rural areas. Moreover, there are also those who considered it a problem that key authorities and resources of district municipalities were transferred to metropolitan municipalities. Some members considered that all municipalities in the city centrum be abolished and the metropolitan municipality remains as the single authority. There were also considerations that district municipalities were a waste.

7- What they understand of the concepts of “Local Autonomy” and “Local Democracy”

Some of the interviewed council members explained that expectations of the community did not reach the council, while a significant portion stated that everybody’s problems were dealt with. Local democracy is considered as the operation of the “representation” mechanism. Even though council members demand more effectiveness in the council, participatory methods are not sought much. On the other hand, some of the members we interviewed asserted that democracy was not practiced much, and actual problems were determined and dealt with by the mayor while they should be raised by the council and then communicated to commissions; which made council members ineffective. It was also stated by a large majority of members that municipalities had no problems with local autonomy, but structures consisting of “some cities” could damage Turkey. Only one member considered no drawback in this. The same person also mentioned that there was no need for district municipalities in city centruns.

According to members, Turkey absolutely did not need a system congruent with federal states, and there were no political, social and economic justifications that required regional administration.

Municipalities already have “administrative and economic autonomy” in the existing local administration system. A structure beyond this would damage Turkey’s integrity. There is a need to make reforms in order to protect conventional structures and transform them into effective, sufficient and democratic ones. Some members stated that regional administration was “a rather premature idea for Turkey” and could be employed in time in parallel with further promotion of democracy. Some members asserted that ethnic-based politics in the Southeast of Turkey left no opportunities for regional administration and could arouse significant problems with regard not only to the unitary structure, but also to localization. Only one member emphasized that Turkey was a great country, so there was no point in abstaining from anything, and regional administrations could be established.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The most important conclusion that can be drawn from interviews with nine commission members and one council member out of the commissions under Konya Metropolitan Municipality Council is that neither council members, nor commissions participated actively in decision-making processes in a functional manner. While it was observed that there were qualified members with a wide vision and perspective as far as rural development and urbanization are concerned, it can be stated that some others evaluated their membership in council and municipal structure merely from the view of “party loyalty”.

It is understood that decision-making in the council turns into a technical performance of duties realized as a result of bureaucratic correspondences rather than democratic processes. Requests from rural and urban units are negotiated at department heads and relevant units under the Metropolitan Municipality, and those which are considered appropriate are sent to the council and active/operating commissions. Some of the inactive commissions have never held a meeting and those which did it only met for once and addressed to issues about the overall policies.

On the other hand, some council members claimed that topics addressed by the council were negotiated in a rather democratic and modern environment, and that very harmonic cooperation existed between the ruling party members and opposition members. No specialists have been invited and consulted by council members themselves since commissions commenced their operations.

The role of TOKI⁵ for urban transformation is generally welcomed, however, few as they may be, some of the members stated it disrupted the integrity of urban planning as well as dynamics of the urban development.

Responses given to questions concerning the city reflected that the problem of transportation was the leading one. This was followed by the problem of urban transformation, and then the infrastructure, employment and relief activities oriented towards the poor.

Members of the metropolitan municipality council do not consider election of municipality council members directly by the society positive in general. There is a strong belief about the efficiency of the existing election system.

There is an unmitigated compromise on the fact that no problems are encountered about representation. All members share the opinion that almost all strata of the society are represented well in areas under the responsibility of the metropolitan municipality council. Not only people residing in

⁵ TOKI: Abbreviation of 'Housing Development Administration'. (T.N.)

urban or rural areas, but also poor people are represented well by the metropolitan municipality council according to the members.

Some members of the municipality council underlined the necessity to discuss the urbanization policies in the city centrum based on the assertion that construction activities in the city center brought along an unpreventable crowd and this made the city hard to reside, which led to a process that weakened the understanding of sustainable urbanization. Some members specifically pointed to the need for the city to have sustainable urbanization policies and an understanding of architecture. Some of the members who mentioned that high and close buildings led to a stuffy urban construction, that urbanization needed to be distributed all over the plains of Konya, and that the public transport network, particularly metro, should be taken into account, underlined that some public dwellings and buildings in urban areas were planned inappropriately and irrevocable mistakes were made.

To summarize, within the existing system, it is obvious that the metropolitan municipality council which acts like a local parliament possesses significant roles with regard to local democracy. It is clear that some meetings need to be held for discussing such issues as election of council members, their appointment to work in commissions, and the decision-making processes in the council. First of all, determination/ election of council members must be done by consulting relevant sections and a “preliminary interview”, which will promote local democracy as well as local politics. Second, members from the opposition must be present among council members who will be elected for commissions in cases when all members are from the ruling party, then the initiatives of members must be enhanced. Thirdly, conditions required for council members to convey problems relating to their relevant fields of responsibilities to the council and to determine the agenda must be provided. Lastly, city councils, which might “inspire” municipality councils in terms of “consultancy” must become functional.

“Quota members” must be elected to municipality councils. Councils must include members from universities, unions, professional organizations and representatives from central administrations. 10% or 5% of the council may comprise of such members, who may not have the right to vote as opposed to the idea that it would conflict with the local democracy. However, if such members are given the opportunity to reflect the interests of the social strata they represent and make democratic contributions in council meetings, then local councils could operate more effectively and in conformity with their aims. On the other hand, “specialty commissions” were projected in local administration laws for the purpose of participation in decision-making processes. It was prescribed that experts and NGOs be invited to participate in such commissions. However, effectiveness of practices decreases due to lack of compulsory participation (Azaklı&Özgür, 2005: 318).

The fact that the council is comprised of several members does not mean that local democracy is effective. That the position of the mayor is predominant weakens decision-making mechanisms and participation. As long as the system of “powerful mayor- weak council model” continues, a participatory democracy will remain merely as a dream. Although there are assessments that local administration councils “were tried to be strengthened” with post-2003 reforms (Arıkboğa; Oktay; Yılmaz, 2007: 23), conducted researches show that council is weak and is not effective in decision-making.

Appointing responsibilities to metropolitan municipalities within civil borders enhances the problems of effectiveness, productiveness and democracy. Increasing “authorities and resources” without supervision actions and functions will never promote local democracy. The matter of “custody”, which is central to the local administration- central administration relations, has got a different function in Turkey with the metropolitan regulations and it has “regionalized” in a sense. Custody over district municipalities was given to metropolitan municipalities. A significant portion of the custody mandate formerly owned and used by the central administration is now handed over to metropolitan municipalities. This has been a development restricting the autonomy of local administrations and must be abolished (Şarbak, 2015: 26). The principle of subsidiarity which is regarded as the basic principle for autonomy of local administrations has weakened as a result of this

development. Public services must be rendered by units and decision-making organs closest to the community.

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Using Student Exemplars in Empowering Learning

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Abstract

It has been the author's experience that most art students learn about their art or craft through three major means: first, they learn from other artists and their artworks; second, they learn from their teachers; and third, they learn from their peers. A well-organized academic module or course is best built around these three means. Learning from former student exemplars is especially important to Ho's students and each semester he carefully records what his students have created so that his next group of students can learn from their successes and mistakes. His proven pedagogy for teaching studio art emphasizes incorporating former student exemplars into his teaching as a means to encourage and inspire students. Traditional art education focuses on setting the teacher and historical masterpieces as examples for students to emulate. However, this can be a drawback because it is hard for students to reach the teacher's skill level which usually takes years of practice to accomplish. This paper explores collaborative teaching and learning by using student exemplars to heighten students' sensibilities and perceptions. By studying their former peers' artworks, new ideas and insights may be obtained because students who are from similar backgrounds share similar experiences and social values.

Keywords: Art education, quality education, improvement method, collaborative teaching, & empowering learning

Introduction

On the last day of classes, like most teaching artists, Prof. Kong Ho, collects his student artwork assignments and gets ready to evaluate and document the work so that he will have the latest visual recordings for next semester's classes. These important tasks can also be very exhausting if the classes are especially large, like they are at University of Brunei Darussalam (UBD). There is not any university requirement for teaching artists or art educators to document their student work for grading or teaching purposes. Ho documented his students' work for more than 28 years. He began teaching art and design at the Department of Architecture, University of Hong Kong, in 1987, and this is where he began archiving student exemplars for use in his future classes. Ho's method of taking photos of his students' work has only changed in his equipment use from analog to digital photography. Other than that, the framing and lighting of the art has remained the same. Digital photography is more convenient and flexible than analog or film photography for documenting student two-dimensional or three-dimensional artworks, especially when it comes to handle color temperature, light settings, and noise and grain adjustments. The specific purpose for documenting student artworks is almost the same, which is to give the next group of his students the best student exemplars possible when they are studying.

Nature of art and design teaching and learning

The nature of studying art and design is about the creating original artworks or solving particular design problems. However, some previous artworks or design projects are impossible to collect and store for various reasons. Sometimes students want to keep their work, or perhaps a learning institution does not have a proper storage place for archiving student exemplars. Also, many artworks prohibit from being collected because of their physical size, weight, or fragility. Therefore, documentation of the physical work through analog or digital photography offers a logical solution for recording artworks or design work and transforming them into two-dimensional photographic prints or digital images. Like other

emerging teaching artists, Ho archived his student artworks as teaching resources for his future teaching and as teaching evidence for his next teaching position application. In the visual art academic field, job applicants are always asked to provide some samples of their student artworks along with their own personal artworks as reviewing materials along with their curricula vitae. Usually, the search committee members review the applicant's student artworks in order to examine whether the applicant's teaching pedagogies are effective or not. The conceptual ideas and technical achievement of individual student artworks can reveal the quality of art education which students received. Also, the outcomes of an art assignment or project or course justify the teaching pedagogies. It is also true that no matter how good an individual teaching artist or art educator is in his or her own personal art, it does not mean that he or she is good in teaching art because practicing art and teaching art are two different professional practices.

Practicing art is a kind of artistic research or practice-based enquiry or intellectual qualitative research with focus on the arts. Sheldon Richmond (1994) has discussed that "there are parallels between the scientific laboratory and the artistic studio as work place where hypotheses are tested" (p. 29). Artists generate their creative expressions and meanings through hands-on experience with the visual and material worlds within their studios. The process of art making requires constant practice and self-determination. However, teaching art is about transmitting conceptual knowledge and passing on technical training in the double process of giving and receiving. G. James Daichendt (2013) have described the key characteristic of teaching artist that "... the teaching artist is able to relate to students as fellow artists, equals, co-learners and perhaps at times direct collaborators in the making of art, the discovery of artistic and technical insights and the making of meaning" (p. 227). The major emphases of art teaching and learning in the 21st century should be creativity and originality, sensitivity and perception, visual communication, conceptual and technical development, problem solving ability, and theoretical study and experimental learning. No matter how different in the higher educational systems and diverse cultural background in the world, these six fundamental bases of art education should remain the same. In other words, each teaching artist may have different pedagogies or assignments set for his or her students to explore. Nevertheless, the outcomes of any art pedagogy or assignment should be customized towards these six principles. These six fundamental focuses become the answers to the common concerns of normal art learners, such as purposes of art learning, function of art in the society, meaning of art making, and value of art education.

At this point in time, art and design education is not about training an individual to be an artist or designer but about becoming a creative individual with imagination, sensibility, visualization ability, conceptual thinking, technical skill, flexibility, and knowledgeable and exploratory enquiry. Nick Jaffe (2013) captured this essence of teaching artists:

What I think these physical teachers might have in common is a depth of knowledge that enables them to be flexible and spontaneous; an enthusiasm for teaching and learning in their discipline; a dynamic understanding of the inseparability of theory and practice; a commitment to putting the actual work of physical above lesser concerns like "coverage," grades and classroom norms; and a willingness to teach as their peculiar selves. (p. xv)

With social, economic and technological advances occurring on almost a daily basis, it is imperative to develop a global awareness and a multi-cultural understanding of the contemporary art education in the society. It is important for teaching artists to support the interchange of ideas and to change from one-way transmission of knowledge to two-way collaborative learning and teaching in the 21st century second decade art education.

Three major methodologies for learning art

When I look back on the last two decade of my teaching artist life, I believe that I can identify three major methodologies for learning art that shaped my teaching. First, one learns from other artists and their work. Second, one learns from one's teachers, and third, one learns from one's peers. A well-funded art program can offer an exceptional argument in support of the first method. Undoubtedly, visiting art exhibitions and studying original artworks enhance art learners' sensibilities and perceptions. However, it seems impossible for students to travel to different museums in the world to see the genuine masterpieces in various exhibition settings because of the limited art education budget in some countries. Usually, art books are the major sources for studying individual masterpieces. Nevertheless, studies from reproductions of any masterpieces through printing or digital online source always limit the art learning because technically it is impossible to reproduce the colors, textures, details and scale of an authentic artwork. A simple online search for Leonardo da Vinci's masterpiece, Mona Lisa. c. 1503-06, via Google will yield many diverse versions of this significant work of art. Different scanned images or digitally photographed images bear different color combinations. Some online images of Mona Lisa appear more reddish or bluish, which are different from the original masterpiece perceived in the Louvre Museum in France. At the same time, it is not an easy task for individual art learners to appreciate the original masterpiece of Mona Lisa in the Louvre because of the over-crowded amount of tourists in a daily basis. According to online Fun Trivia (2014), over six million tourists visit the Louvre annually and the Mona Lisa is viewed by nearly most of these tourists.

Traditional art education places teaching artists as ethical examples for their students to emulate through demonstrations and their practices. Kong Ho (2014) defined the role of teaching artist: "The earnestness that teaching artists have toward their art can become instilled in their students over time. Moreover, the teaching artists should act as a pioneer explorer toward new project grants, technologies, concepts, and techniques in addition to mastering of traditional methods and skills" (p. 25). Similarly, the seriousness that the teaching artist has toward his or her teaching can have direct and indirect influences on their students. Nonetheless, learning from one's teachers may have a drawback because it is hard for students, especially those learners in the beginning level, to reach their teaching artist's professional skill level even though they have observed the demonstrations carefully. Visual artists, similar to other performing artists, require time to practice their art endeavors. It may seem easy for a professional artist with years of practice to demonstrate some basic rendering skills. However, it may not be easy for an art learner to grasp the essential skill in one lesson or one week of study. Elizabeth Barkley, K. Cross and Claire Major (2005) noted that "First, the predominant conclusion from a half-century of research is that teachers cannot simple transfer knowledge to students. Students must build their own minds through a process of assimilating information into their own understandings. Meaningful and lasting learning occurs through personal, active engagement" (p. xi). It is essential for teaching artists to give their students room to explore new concepts and techniques. Conversely, students can count on their teaching artists for technical and critical support during their art learning exploration.

Documenting what students have created in the current semester so that the next group of students can learn from their successes and mistakes, does not seem at first to be innovative pedagogy, however, incorporating former student exemplars into teaching is so important that educators need to be reminded that the effort of documenting and showing former work serves as an effective means to encourage students and empower learning. Through studying their peers' exemplars, which are created by the same level of former students who are from similar art backgrounds and share similar art experience, the next

group of students can heighten their sensibilities and stimulate their creativities. Traditional art education, like other academic disciplines, emphasizes competitiveness and seniority. Usually, the assessment of art study depends on individual performance and competency in completing art assignments or projects. Empowering students with outstanding exemplars of art assignments or projects helps to blur the divergence between teachers and students, seniors and freshmen and to redirect the center of interest back to learning – acquiring knowledge of specific academic field. Using student exemplars in teaching focuses on collaborative teaching and hands-on learning experience from course objectives or outcomes design to coursework assessment. These two major teaching and learning concepts are augmented with the help of 21st century digital technology and social media communication, so that a very collaborative art learning environment and practice-based course design is firmly established.

The notion that art talents are not innate but are nurtured is of particular important in setting up the learning outcomes with emphasis on creativity, sensibility, visualization, conceptualization, knowledgeability and exploration rather than specific skill acquirement or development. Using student exemplars in setting up the learning outcomes of any art assignment or project not only helps to design reachable learning goals for students but also stimulates students in their studies through collaborative teaching and learning. R. S. Matthews (1996) apprehended the nature of collaborative learning: "Collaborative learning occurs when students and faculty work together to create knowledge. ... It is a pedagogy that has at its center the assumption that people making meaning together and that the process enriches and enlarges them" (p. 101). The inherent features of collaborative learning include instructional pedagogy, collaboration, inclusion, and generation of knowledge and meaning. Within the process of integrating student exemplars in teaching, students study their peer's artworks to achieve shared learning goals. The critical factors for a successful hands-on art learning experience are based on positive interdependence and individual accountability.

Up until this point, using student exemplars in collaborative teaching and learning has been discussed in relation to empowering students in learning. The following are five case studies in university level art courses, chosen from Prof. Ho's Advanced Painting and Digital Photography and Videography courses, taught at UBD from the fall of 2011 to spring of 2014, which can illustrate the details of using student exemplars in collaborative teaching and positive results of learning from student exemplars. A written description of assessment criteria is printed with each assignment or project brief handout to make sure students understand the requirements of that particular assignment. However, many students find written criteria description difficult to relate to because they seem to open to interpretation, but they discover that exemplars are more useful because they can see what their peers have produced. Foster, G., & Marasco, T.L. (2007) illustrated the principle of using exemplars: "Exemplars show what rubrics tell about assessment criteria. Usually referenced to grade levels, they illustrate student work in a way that may help other students improve their work. ... While exemplars possess immense value in standard setting, wise teachers employ them as teaching tools, as well" (p. 5).

Case study I: Synthesis painting assignment

The objectives of the second painting assignment, titled as "Synthesis Painting with Figure and Plant Motifs," from Ho's Advanced Painting course are to explore student imagination and the concept of transformation by synthesizing two different motifs, figure and plant, into an intriguing symbolic painting. Students are required to search for two objects with certain similarities in form, shape, color and/or texture, and apply their imagination to create a metaphoric symbol or figure, which does not literally exist in the reality. The final metaphoric figure should illustrate student's understanding of the

object's structure and the plant's form, plus light and shadow play, color and texture, and transition and formation. In the first painting, *Blue Jay and Lily*, shown in Figure 1, done by Hajah NoorNi'Matullah binti Haji Hamdani in the fall of 2011, reveals NoorNi'Matullah's struggle with merging the blue jay and lily. NoorNi'Matullah tries to transform the tail of blue jay into the blue lily, but the overall composition displays inconsistencies with the other elements in her painting. One year later, Nurul Jannah Haji Ahmad's painting, *Cat-Pitcher-Plant*, done in the spring of 2013, shown in Figure 2, illustrates how Jannah integrates the orange-brown fur of the cat with the pitcher plant cup texture, and she has control of the directional lighting on both subjects. The overall result of her painting shows the competency of Jannah's realistic painting skill and her creativity in merging two motifs into an intriguing composition. However, without the previous exemplar done by NoorNi'Matullah, Jannah may not have grasped the true criteria for this painting assignment.



Figure 1: Hajah NoorNi'Matullah binti Haji Hamdani. *Blue Jay and Lily*. 2011. Acrylic on canvas, 20"H x 16"W.



Figure 2: Nurul Jannah Haji Ahmad. Cat-Pitcher-Plant. 2013. Acrylic on canvas, 20"H x 20"W.

Case study II: Given object painting assignment

The first painting assignment, "Your Chosen Subject Matter with a Given Object," from Ho's Advanced Painting module is designed to challenge the student's mind about considering the composition and content of his or her painting. Each student receives a similar or identical object, such as a seashell, a napkin with snowflake pattern, a piece of day calendar paper, or a game card, and has to find a creative way to integrate this object into his or her painting. The only thing they are not allowed to do is to collage the object directly onto the canvas. Students have to study the given object first in order to have a better understanding of its form, shape, color and texture. At the same time, they have to figure out the way to transform the given object into an interesting component in their paintings' compositions. Furthermore, the given object has to fit with the particular subject matter they have chosen, such as still-life, landscape, or figure. In the first painting, Donut and Snowflake Napkin, done by Nur Amnani binti Haji Awg Md Taib in the spring of 2012, Amnani's idea was to highlight the functional use of the given object, the snowflake napkin, by placing it under the donuts. The overall composition of Amnani's painting shows her understanding of color contrast, especially warm and cool color contrast. Also, Amnani pays attention to the textural details of the donut and snowflake napkin. Two years later, Aqilah Haji Morshidi's Time Metamorphosis, shown in Figure 2, show her creativity for transforming an ordinary flat piece of printed day calendar paper into a paper-cut butterfly sitting on a wood log. Aqilah not only change the form of the given object from two-dimensional paper to three-dimensional roll but also transcends the inherent meaning of what a calendar represents – constrained time. In contrast to controlled time she creates a butterfly that is a symbol of freedom and a break from human controlled time. Aqilah masters the concept of light and shadow as well as her painting skill in this imaginative painting. Aqilah's painting reveals a conceptual advance in comparison with Amnani's painting. Aqilah was not satisfied to present just the original function of a calendar's day, but transformed it into an extraordinary symbolic object that integrated well with the rest of her painting's components.



Figure 3: Nur Amnani binti Haji Awg Md Taib. Donut & Snowflake Napkin. 2014. Acrylic on canvas, 16"H x 20"W.



Figure 4: Aqilah Haji Morshidi. Time Metamorphosis. 2014. Acrylic on canvas, 16"H x 20"W.

Case study III: Caustic photography assignment

The objectives of the second photography assignment, "Lighting and Decisive Moment," are designed to let students explore different light sources, to include indoor or outdoor available light. Also, different camera exposure settings are explored to capture a certain moment, which may exceed normal human visual perception and allow for the capture of a picture of something we may not normally see. According to Henri Cartier-Bresson (1908-2004), the father of modern photojournalism, there is a creative moment of a second when we are taking a picture. Our eyes see an artistic composition or a unique expression that life itself offers us, and we must know with intuition when to press the shutter down. Once you miss that moment, it is gone forever. Many outstanding photographs are of fleeting moments, and the photographer has to be opportunistic and capture that decisive moment. For this

assignment, students were required to capture a "caustic", or a bright shape created by the focusing of light through a curved transparent object, such as the pattern of light on a table top made by light passing through a curved glass surface. Nur Amnani Haji Awg Md Taib's photo, "Caustic," shown in Figure 5 and done in the spring of 2012, shows how she manipulates the caustic modulating circle of light by adding yellow-orange food color to the glass filled with water and focusing on the pattern radiating on the table top instead of on the glass itself. In comparison with Mohammad Niq'Matul Ghizalif bin Md Jinin's "Golden Caustic," shown in Figure 6 and done in the spring of 2013, Amnani's photo is slightly less successful in his use of the background to emphasize the caustic. Niq's photo shows his competence in controlling the background color and side-lit lighting to turn the center of interest to the golden caustic light. However, without Amnani's exemplar, Niq may not have been able to challenge himself in his caustic photography assignment.

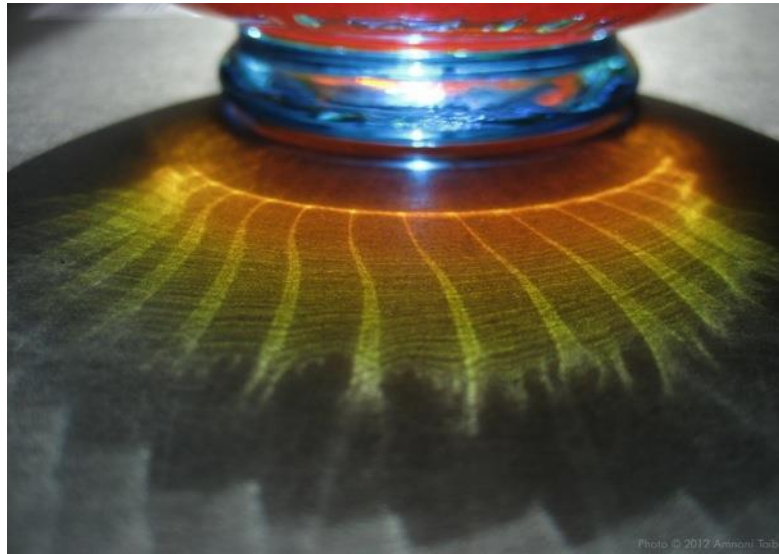


Figure 5: Nur Amnani binti Haji Awg Md Taib. Caustic. 2012. Digital print, 8"H x 10"W.



Figure 6: Mohammad Niq'Matul Ghizalif bin Md Jinin. Golden Caustic. 2013. Digital print, 10"H x 8"W.

Case study IV: Decisive moment photography assignment

The requirement for the decisive moment photography assignment is mainly about capturing the decisive moment of a person or a group of people in action. Teaching students about what a decisive moment is and how to capture it is first introduced through a PowerPoint lecture that introduces students to the iconic photo of photojournalism, "Place de l'Europe – Gare Saint Lazare," done by Henri Cartier-Bresson in 1932. Students analyze the image and learn how to capture the action, expression and an entire story in a single image. In the spring of 2012, Nur Raihana Muhammad Hanafi captured the moment her friend, wearing traditional Islamic black woman clothing with headscarf, jumped up with her two arms stretched out, at Maura Beach in Brunei, shown in Figure 7. Her photo became an exemplar of the decisive moment for the next group of photography students. Six months later, Abd Hadi bin Roseli produced another decisive moment photo, "Amazing Phenomenon," showcasing the challenging idea to include three major concepts in a single decisive moment, shown in Figure 8. Hadi directed his four friends to jump up with premeditated actions, such as thinking, reading, opening a door and dancing, which created a more challenging moment than Raihana's single jumping figure. Without Raihana's exemplar, Hadi may have been satisfied with a less ambitious image. The positive competitive nature for doing better than our peers is the driving force behind Hadi's achievement of trying for better results.

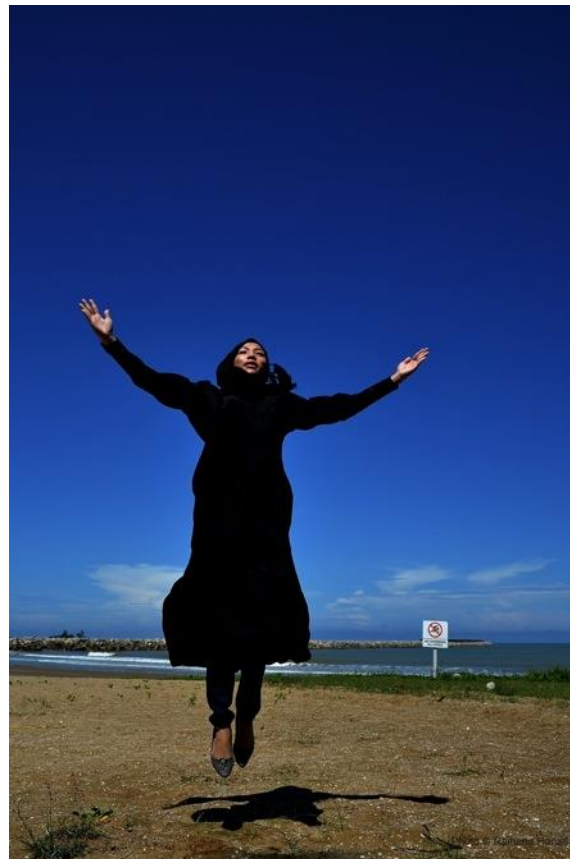


Figure 7: Nur Raihana Muhammad Hanafi. Embracing the Sky. 2013. Digital print, 14"H x 11"W.



Figure 8: Abd Hadi bin Roseli. Amazing Phenomenon. 2013. Digital print, 11"H x 14"W.

Case study V: Altered images photography assignment

In the third photography assignment, "Altered Images," students are required to alter, redesign, or transform a familiar iconic image to create a new impression. The goals for this photography assignment are to explore student imaginations and their understanding of digital imaging. Students alter the famous Mona Lisa, created by Renaissance master, Leonardo da Vinci, into unique images with new interpretations based on its suggested timeless secrets. Also, students must title their altered images with "Homage to Leonardo da Vinci's Mona Lisa" at the front to give credit to the original artist. Mohammad Niq'Matul Ghizalif bin Md Jinin's altered image of Mona Lisa, shown in Figure 9, created in the spring of 2012, he reveals his playful idea for fusing his own identity with that of the Mona Lisa by cloning his face onto Mona Lisa's image. Also, he had to adjust the color setting to match two images. The posture and facial expression of Niq's altered Mona Lisa inspired Ijjojji bin Nordin interpret the typical Bruneian "whatever" gesture in his altered Mona Lisa, shown in Figure 10 and done in the spring of 2013. Ijjojji went beyond his predecessor, Niq, by altering the folding hands gesture of original Mona Lisa to a more playful hand-gesture, in addition to replacing the facial expression of Mona Lisa with his own face.



Figure 9: Mohammad Niq'Matul Ghizalif bin Md Jinin. Homage to Leonardo da Vinci's Mona Lisa – What's Up. 2012. Digital print, 10"H x 8"W.



Figure 10: Ijjoji bin Nordin. Homage to Leonardo da Vinci's Mona Lisa – What Ever. 2013. Digital print, 10"H x 8"W.

Methods in incorporating student exemplars in teaching

Despite the time and effort teaching artists have spent collecting exemplars from their previous classes, they will not see the growth of next group of students over the level of the previous one until they incorporate their students' previous exemplars into their current teaching. There are many ways to incorporate exemplars into teaching materials, such as inserting some exemplars with the individual student name and artwork details into course syllabus, assignment or project handouts, teaching notes, PowerPoint lectures, university or faculty newsletters or magazines, student publications, project brochures, faculty or program web page and/or online discussion group forum; inviting former students as guest artists to share their art experience in classes; asking students to leave their testimonials for the particular program or course. In fact, the best effective way for influencing a student is student referral incentive.

Through printing or online displays of student exemplars, students receive not only the positive recognition for their outstanding artworks but also their inclusion in the curriculum or course development enhances the text of the documents. They claim the ownership of that particular curriculum or course because their previous course works have become a part of learning materials for next group of students. In the 21st century art education, the best curriculum or course design is to let the students feel proud of their studies. If students are interested in their courses and equipped with relevant competence in those particular studies, then they become self-motivated in doing their best in their studies. The role of teaching artist shifts from instructor or coach to inspirer or influential mentor. At the same time, the student's role has been transformed to that of a pro-active one. Empowering students does not demote the influence of a teaching artist, but instead stimulates a passion for learning.

Conclusion

Using exemplars as an instructional resource not only empowers students to engage in their learning, but also helps teaching artists to evaluate their teaching pedagogies and develop their teaching resources. As previously mentioned, it takes extra time and determination for teaching artists to collect exemplars after finishing grading or reviewing student artworks at the end of semester. After that, it requires the action and patience of teaching artists to apply the student exemplars towards developing their teaching materials for next semester's teaching. New ideas and insights may be generated by discussing and studying former peers' artworks because students who are from similar backgrounds share similar experiences and social values. Disseminating student exemplars to the next group of students helps teaching artists to understand their students through their perspective and to set learning outcomes that their students can achieve. This mutual understanding between teaching artists and their students ensures the two-way transmission of knowledge and skills between teaching and learning. Empowering students in their own learning means to blur the role of teachers and receiving learners and to establish true two-way collaborative teaching and learning.

The satisfaction gained from witnessing the improvement of individual students who were inspired by their predecessors' exemplars may go beyond the actual time and effort, which teaching artists spent on documenting, collecting and implementing exemplars as instructional resources, learning outcomes and subject standards. Engaging students in learning by using student exemplars is a scaffold type learning technique that cannot really be an innovative pedagogy used for constructivist learning until teaching artists are aware of its true usefulness and effectiveness. Similarly, any effective teaching pedagogy should be timeless for inspiring learning and generating new knowledge.

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Merits and Demerits of Using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) Tools in Iranian High School English Classes

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Abstract

In this decade, significant progress has been made in the field of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to the extent that sometimes seems impossible to imagine life without the achievements of the field. That is why the present researcher, as an English teacher, decided to investigate the merits and demerits of using ICT in Iranian high school English classes. The study also aims to examine the implementation of ICT tools to motivate English teachers to teach better and encourage the learners to learn better. In this regard, a questionnaire was used to collect English teachers' perceptions about the merits and demerits of using ICT tools in their classrooms. The results of this study are hoped to provide insights to the Ministry of Education in Iran to improve the insufficient use of ICT tools in English teaching and learning classes.

Keywords: information and communication technology (ICT), merits, demerits, questionnaire, education

Introduction

Teaching and learning processes have been affectedly reshaped in higher education by the development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) tools (Pulkinen, 2007; Wood, 1995). ICT for education is more imperative today than ever before since its mounting power and capabilities are imposing a change in the learning environments available for education. ICT are a diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create disseminate, store, and manage information. Communication and information play a central role in education procedures; therefore, ICT in education has a long history. ICT are basically information managing tools – a varied set of goods, applications and services that are used to produce, store, process, distribute and exchange information. They include “old” ICTs like radio, television and telephone, and the “new” ones as computer, satellite and wireless technology and internet with their associated tools. ICT has played an educational role in formal and non-formal settings, in programs provided by governmental agencies, public and private educational institutions, for-profit corporations and non-profit groups, and secular and religious communities. ICT has always been considered important in the classes in general, and in English classes in particular. The implementation of ICT, during the last two decades, in education has become a substantial subject in research on educational reform (Drent & Meelissen, 2008). This study is specifically aimed to investigate the merits and demerits of using ICT tools in Iranian Junior High School English Classes. Since teachers are thought to play a key role in effective implementation of educational modifications, part of this project concerns empowering teachers in pre-service and in-service courses (Paraskeva, Bouta, & Papagianni, 2008). Accordingly, studies on factors that influence ICT utilization by teachers, in different countries, have recently begun to expand (e.g., Baylor & Ritchie, 2002; Granger, Morbey, Lotherington, Owston, & Wideman, 2002; Robinson, 2003; Hew & Brush, 2007; Hermans et al., 2008; Paraskeva et al., 2008; Kim, Jung, & Lee, 2008; Inan & Lowther, 2010; Zamani, 2010).

The results of this string of research confirm that technology has the capacity to provide opportunities for influential teaching and learning environments (Hermans, Tondeur, van Braak, & Valcke, 2008) and can affect students' learning (Cancannon, Flynn, & Campbell, 2005), motivation (Mahdizadeh, Biemans, & Mulder, 2008), critical thinking (Lim, Teo, Wong, Khine, Chai, & Divaharan, 2003), and autonomy (Claudia, Steil, & Todesco, 2004).

Literature review

ICT is a term which refers to technologies used in creating, accumulating, storing, editing, and disseminating of information in different forms. ICT is considered as a revolution that engages the use of computers, internet and other telecommunication (Bandeled, 2006). Some merits and demerits of using these tools exist in teaching English classes of Iranian Junior High School English Classes (IJHSEC). The present study debates the topic under the following outlines:

- Merits of ICT in enhancing qualified education.
- Demerits of ICT in enhancing qualified education.
- Merits of ICT for students.
- Merits of ICT for teachers.

Merits of ICT in enhancing qualified education.

There are a number of merits derived from the use of ICT tools in enhancing quality of ICT education like, firstly, the ability of learner to decide when to learn irrespective of geographical location without stress. Secondly, ICT also empowers learners to discover and explore new ideas or innovations from experts around the global world through the use of common ICT available facilities. Thirdly, the existence of ICT in education system will enable students to deliver lectures, empower educators to monitor learners' improvement and even aid evaluators to assess them timely. However, (Nwosu & Ugbo, 2012) listed the following as the merits of ICT in enhancing qualified education:

- **Active Learning:** ICT- enhanced learning mobilizes tools for examination, calculation and analysis of information, thus providing a platform for student inquiry, analysis and construction of new information. Learners, then, learn as they do and, whenever appropriate, work on real-life problems in depth, making learning less abstract and more relevant to the learner's life situation. By doing so, and in contrast to memorization-based or rote learning, ICT-enhanced learning foster learner engagement.
- **Collaborative Learning:** ICT-supported learning encourages interaction and cooperation among students, teachers, and experts regardless of their location. Apart from modeling real world interaction, ICT-supported learning provides learners the opportunity to work with people from other cultures, thereby helping to enhance learners' teaming and communicative skills as well as their global awareness. It models learning done throughout the learners' lifetime by expanding the learning space to include not just peers but also mentors and experts from different fields.
- **Creative Learning:** ICT-supported learning progresses the manipulation of existing information and the creation of real world products rather than the regurgitation of received information.
- **Integrative Learning:** ICT-enhanced learning promotes a thematic, integrative approach to teaching and learning. This approach eliminates the artificial separation between the different disciplines and between theory and practice that characterizes the traditional classroom approach.
- **Evaluative Learning:** ICT-enhanced learning is student-directed and diagnostic. Based on ICT-enhanced learning, there are various learning pathways and different articulations of knowledge. ICTs allow learners to explore and discover rather than simply listen and remember.

Demerits of ICT in enhancing qualified education.

The integration of ICT in classrooms can also result in demerits. Teachers may have difficulty in the integration thereof. The teacher must manage, at all times, the navigation of students during school hours. It can justify them that all websites are not reliable or acceptable. In a word, students need to make better use. Moreover, researchers claim that when integrating ICT, children with access to this information, are more likely to detach themselves from the rest of the group because they can hardly play when the children are team. When writing on the computer, it cannot be two people at once. Hence, the integration of technology has its own limits. Some important demerits of ICT in enhancing qualified education are inadequate ICT facilities and unsophisticated accessories. In Iran, most ICT facilities are not adequate to enhance qualified education to learners and teachers, even where it exists they are not sophisticated enough to stand the taste of time like the ones acquired in developed countries. Problems of quality and lack of resources are incorporated with the education institutions battle to cope with every increasing students' numbers. One of the major demerits of ICT is failure to reach its full potential in the foundation stage in teacher's attitude. According to Hara (2004), within the early years education, attitudes towards ICT can alter noticeably. Some consider it as a potential tool to assist learning whereas others disagree with the use of technology in early year settings. As Blatchford and White-bread state, the use of ICT in the foundation stage is unhealthy and hinders learning (Blatchford & White-bread, 2003). In theory, some people may view the teachers without the experience of ICT throughout their learning having negative attitude towards it, since they may lack the training in that area of the curriculum.

Merits of ICT for students

Some fundamental and essential merits of ICT tools for students in English classroom are:

- a) Higher quality lessons through greater collaboration between teachers in planning and preparing resources.
- b) More focused teaching, tailored to students' strengths and weakness, through better analysis of realization data.
- c) Improve pastoral care and behavior management through better tracking of students.
- d) Achievement of understanding and analytical skills, including improvement in reading comprehension.
- e) Development of writing skills, also fluency, originality and elaboration.
- f) Encouragement of independent and active learning and self-responsibility for learning.

Merits of ICT for teachers

Following are some major and real merits of ICT for English teachers:

- a) ICT facilitates sharing of resources, expertise and device.
- b) More flexibility in when and where tasks are accomplished.
- c) Easier planning and preparation of lessons and designing materials.
- d) Access to up-to-date pupil and school data, anytime and anywhere.
- e) Achievement of ICT literacy skills, confidence and enthusiasm.
- f) Enhancement of professional image projected to colleagues.
- g) Motivating students to continue using learning outside school hours by using computer during lessons.

Methodology

This study is just one part of a huge project. The general purpose of the main study was to explore the effectiveness of using ICT tools in Iranian junior high schools in English classes.

Participants

The participants were 60 Iranian English teachers chosen based on stratified random from high schools of one city in Iran. Twenty-three male (38.33) and thirty-seven female (61.66) English teachers were selected randomly from the population.

Instruments for data collection

Personal Information Form (PIF)

By using a personal information questionnaire, teachers' personal features were collected. Teachers were requested to provide information about personal variables like: gender, age, academic degree, years of experience, workload of weekly period, and area of teaching.

The Role of ICT Tools Form (RITF)

All in all, seven strategies were applied to assess the role of ICT tools in his/her teaching by giving the following options: never, rarely, sometimes, often, and always.

Merits of ICT Tools in Teaching English Classroom Form (MITTECF)

Attitudes towards merits of ICT tools in teaching English classroom with 10 items were assessed by giving the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, no opinion, agree, and strongly agree.

Demerits of ICT Tools in Teaching English Classroom Form (DITTECF)

Attitudes towards demerits of ICT tools in teaching English classrooms were assessed by giving 10 items and giving the following options: strongly disagree, disagree, no opinion, agree, and strongly agree.

A total of sixty questionnaires were administered in each of the four sample high schools named Science, Happy, Sky, and Unique. The fifty questionnaires were equally retrieved immediately from the respondents.

Table 1: High Schools Involved in the research in Iran

| Name of high schools | Number of questionnaires retrieved and used |
|----------------------|---|
| Science | 13 |
| Happy | 10 |
| Sky | 12 |
| Unique | 14 |
| Flower | 11 |

Table 2: Number of Distributed and Collected English Teachers' Questionnaires

| School name | School type | Gender of the school | Educational district | Distributed questionnaires | Collected questionnaires | Percent |
|-------------|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------|
| Science | Govern. | Boy | City | 13 | 13 | 100% |
| Happy | Govern. | Boy | City | 10 | 9 | 90% |
| Sky | Govern. | Girl | City | 12 | 10 | 83.3% |
| Unique | Govern. | Girl | City | 14 | 12 | 85.7% |
| Flower | Govern. | Girl | City | 11 | 10 | 90.9% |
| Total | | | | 60 | 54 | 90% |

Table 3: Role of ICT Tools in Teaching English Classes in Iran

| No | Strategies | Science | Happy | Sky | Unique | Flower | Total | % |
|----|--|---------|-------|-----|--------|--------|-------|------|
| 1 | Listening cases | 10 | 7 | 11 | 8 | 8 | 44 | 73.3 |
| 2 | Video record lessons | 11 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 51 | 85 |
| 3 | Making the learners to learn computer soft wares | 12 | 10 | 11 | 14 | 11 | 58 | 96.6 |
| 4 | Engaging the learners in group activities | 13 | 10 | 12 | 14 | 11 | 60 | 100 |
| 5 | Teaching web sites | 8 | 5 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 38 | 63.3 |
| 6 | Team teaching with ICT tools | 13 | 10 | 12 | 14 | 11 | 60 | 100 |
| 7 | Speaking, listening, reading and writing cases with computer | 13 | 10 | 10 | 9 | 10 | 52 | 41.6 |

Table 4: Schools and ICT Tools in Teaching English Classes in Iran

| No | ICT tools used | Science | Happy | Sky | Unique | Flower | Total | % |
|----|-------------------------|---------|-------|-----|--------|--------|-------|-------|
| 1 | Internet | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 60 | 100 |
| 2 | Online database | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 13 | 21.66 |
| 3 | Scanner | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 13.33 |
| 4 | computer | 10 | 5 | 8 | 7 | 8 | 38 | 63.33 |
| 5 | Smart board | 3 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 13 | 21.66 |
| 6 | Website | 4 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 15 | 25 |
| 7 | Weblog | 8 | 9 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 38 | 63.33 |
| 8 | Fax machine | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 8 | 13.33 |
| 9 | Data projector | 3 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 13 | 21.66 |
| 10 | Video recorder | 6 | 5 | 8 | 9 | 2 | 30 | 50 |
| 11 | Laptop | 8 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 31 | 51.66 |
| 12 | Online quiz | 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 8.33 |
| 13 | Podcasts | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 11.66 |
| 14 | Text chat (sms) | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | Social networking sites | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 5: Merits derived from the use of ICT facilities

| No | Merits | Science | Happy | Sky | Unique | Flower | Total |
|----|--|---------|-------|-----|--------|--------|--------|
| 1 | Access to what I need anytime | 15 | 12 | 16 | 10 | 7 | 100% |
| 2 | Access to remote resources I want anytime | 5 | 12 | 11 | 9 | 6 | 71.66% |
| 3 | Else of research done quick and easy access to remote resources | 11 | 8 | 9 | 4 | 10 | 70% |
| 4 | Improvement in the quality of education | 10 | 12 | 10 | 11 | 15 | 96.66% |
| 5 | Quality of research improvement | 12 | 11 | 13 | 10 | 10 | 93.33% |
| 6 | Quick access to research participants | 9 | 10 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 55% |
| 7 | Teaching and learning enhancement through the use of quality information resources | 13 | 12 | 9 | 11 | 12 | 95% |
| 8 | Active learning enhancement | 12 | 13 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 100% |
| 9 | Encourages collaborative and interactive learning | 11 | 10 | 10 | 9 | 10 | 83.33% |
| 10 | Encourages interactive approach to learning | 8 | 10 | 9 | 7 | 6 | 66.66% |

Results

The table (1) shows that sixty questionnaires were distributed in each of high schools and all were retrieved and allocated to the study. The table (2) revealed that five schools took part in this research, three of which were girls' schools and two of which were boys' schools; the total questionnaires which distributed among them were (60) and collected questionnaires were (54). All schools were Governmental and their names were Science, Happy, Sky, Unique and Flower. The maximum percent belonged to Science (100 %) and the minimum percent belonged to Sky (83.3 %). The table (3) shows that all English teachers know the role of ICT tools in teaching English classes and want to involve the learners with the best strategies in their teaching but their viewpoints are different; Strategy (No- 4) is the most popular strategy on which English teachers agree and believe that there is no negative viewpoints about it (100%), but in strategy (No-7) quite vice versa, their ideas are different and they believe that ICT tools should not be used in any four skills of English (41.6%). The table (4) shows that all English teachers used the following ICT tools. These ICT tools include Internet, Online database, Scanner, computer, Smart board, Website, Weblog, Fax machine, Data projector, Video recorder, Laptop, Online quiz, and Podcasts ,in which English teachers of five high schools have been involved but none of English teachers in five high schools have been involved in (Text chat & Social networking sites). The study ,as shown in table 3, revealed that 60 (100%) have used Internet, 13(21.66%) have used online database, 8(13.33) scanner,38(63.33%) computer,13(21.66%) smart board, 15(25%) website, 38(63.33%) weblog, 8(13.33%) fax machine, 13(21.66%) data projector, 30(50%) video recorder, 31(51.66%) laptop, 5(8.33%) online quiz, 7(11.66%) podcasts. Regarding table (5), the study revealed that the five high schools have benefited from the ICT facilities through what is needed at any

point in time. The research have showed (100%) derived from Access to what I need anytime , (71.66%) derived from Access to remote resources I want anytime, (70%) derived from Else of research done quick and easy access to remote resources,(96.66%) derived from Improvement in the quality of education, (93.33%) derived from Quality of research improvement,(55%) derived from Quick access to research participants,(95%) derived from Teaching and learning enhancement through the use of quality information resources,(100%) derived from Active learning enhancement,(83.33%) derived from Encourages collaborative and interactive learning,(66.66%)derived from Encourages interactive approach to learning. The study also revealed that ICT tools enhance Access to what I need anytime and Active learning enhancement and has to notice to Quick access to research participants.

Discussion

In general, a number of merits and demerits can be considered regarding using ICT tools in English classes. For the merits, it is reported that using ICT could help to meet the teachers' teaching objectives as ICT aids the teaching process. The results of the study revealed that English teachers used technology chiefly in teaching followed by speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. The outcomes of the study also showed that ICT tools like Internet, Online database, Scanner, computer, Smart board, Website, Weblog, Fax machine, Data projector, Video recorder, Laptop, Online quiz, Podcasts, Text chat(sms), Social networking sites are almost less used in high schools of Iran. Besides, the findings indicated that English teachers have formulated a selective ICT-use strategy based on the nature of language skills/components they teach with a general tendency to use digital portable devices.

Conclusion

The merits and demerits of ICT tools, undoubtedly, are a prerequisite to qualified ICT tools in education in general and in English classes in particular. The result of the study has showed that the merits of ICT tools have recently gained groundswell of interest. It is a significant research area for many scholars around the world. Their nature is highly changed by the face of education over the last few decades. Truly, a small percentage of schools in some countries effectively use ICT tools to support and change teaching and learning procedures in many areas. As shown in this study, many students consider ICT tools very helpful in that it helps them do assignments better and that the teachers teach English better and more meaningful. ICT tools, likewise, help teachers work in teams and share ideas associated with school curriculum. Many English teachers use ICT tools to support modern teaching methods to improve students' pedagogy and learning processes in new opportunities of using ICT tools in English classes , as well. Many of English teachers believed that, firstly ICT tools can change the lessons' pace, secondly ICT tools, with the groundswell of interest can enhance the quality of teaching and learning in schools of Iran.

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The Role of Urban Spaces in Women's Safety: A Case Study in Najafabad City, Iran

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Abstract

Public space in a city is the stage of action in people's daily life and is defined in contrast to the private life space. Safety is one of the main elements of social welfare and women as human resources of each society have an effective role in promoting a society's progress and goals and this aim is not possible unless they feel safe in public venues. Providing safety, as one of the main needs of humans, has always been a concern in all societies and communities. In this regard, preventing crimes through environmental designing in cities is a modern viewpoint which has attracted much attention and is considered a purposeful approach for decreasing crimes in cities and is extremely influential in improving life quality and increasing citizens' satisfaction and as a result improving social welfare and society's health. The aim of this research was to investigate public space in Najafabad city and its influence on women's safety in this city. The research method in this research is applied or pragmatic regarding its aim and descriptive-analytic and survey regarding its nature. In this research, the factors affecting women's safety were assessed and analyzed using a questionnaire. The obtained results revealed that 56% of the respondents believe that the quality of urban spaces in order to provide safety for women in Najafabad city requires organization and planning.

Keywords: women's social safety, organizing urban space, Najafabad City, Iran

Introduction

Big cities make lonely and vulnerable societies and the continuation of the current trend of living in big cities demonstrates a warning environment and space which in itself increases the feeling of insecurity (Abazari, 2000).

In addition, urbanization helps offenders and criminals remain anonymous and unknown (Amir Kafi, 2007). The social class gap and migration lead to the antisocial personality of this group (Tankis, 2009) and access to industrial drug increases the false courage and violence of susceptible individuals. These bring about insecurity (Kolahchian, 2003). Nowadays, the issue of women's social security should be looked upon beyond the actual real spaces and environments since living with new communicative and information technologies has become two-special and various forms of insecurity are evolving and expanding into virtual spaces (Sedigh, 2000). Insecurity phenomenon has two dimensions of objective (the victim) and subjective (judgment about the security of the region aspects (Bahreini, 2000)). In other words, the difference between safety or security and feeling secure is that everyone needs security (Khosh Far, 2000) but feeling secure is beyond security (Mir Arab, 2000). Sources providing the sense of security are different for different individuals in the society. The resources are effective at the three levels of macro, intermediate, and micro levels (Babae, 2011). Feeling secure is different in the opinions of individuals in the community (Bemanian, Mahmoodi Nezhad, 2010) and the factor of gender has a different interpretation of this concept (Navidnia, 2009). A city is a cultural- physical set which is shaped based on needs, activities and behaviors of the residents (Salehi, 2009). In recent years, the mission of urbanization in the field of improving and promoting the level of safety and security has focused on designing spaces and appropriate planning for urban lands and usages (Amir Kafi, 2007). In this regard, we can point to CPTED approach in designing and planning urban environments, landscape, and spaces which efforts to promote safety and security in the city through which contributes to the feeling and sense of safety and security of residents complying with and observing certain standards of construction and landscape of physical environments (Hosseini, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to determine different intertwined factors which create unsafe and insecure urban spaces for women in Najaabad city.

The main question of this research is to understand how to study the women's security in Najaf Abad city by recognizing the condition of urban spaces in this city. The hypothesis of the research is that there is a relationship between the degree of social support and feeling of social security of women in Najaf Abad city. The second hypothesis is that there is a relationship between safety and security of the location of residence and the women's feeling and sense of social security in Najaf Abad city.

Review of the literature

The feeling of social security is closely related to human mental and psychological comfort and is one of the main components of social welfare. Researchers in the fields of humanities and social sciences have dealt with the critical issue of the feeling of social security and each of them has studied it from a different angle.

Stanko (1992) in his researches on fear of crime in American society found that fear of crime among women (fear of being raped) is three times more than men.

Bell (1998) in his research with the subject of women and social security in Australia came to the conclusion that women in general fear cases such as going out at night, waiting at a bus stop, driving alone at night, and dead alleys.

Investigations by Jackson (2004) in the UK with the subject of social and cultural explanations of fear of crime have shown that at least some aspects of the concept of vulnerability can explain different levels of fear of crime and insecurity among age and gender groups.

The research studies conducted by Reno and Lavery (2009) in the American society with the subject of investigating the socio-economic status of families in feeling safe and secure referred to the diverse needs and concerns of women in the low social strata of families and mentioned their main concern in occupational and economic conditions.

Bonnete and Pascal's studies (2007) in France with the subject of comparative evaluation of the degree of women and girls' social security in the neighborhoods of Paris show that women fear living in insecure places known as problematic neighborhoods and feel insecure about them.

Weaver (2010) studies in the US with the subject of the effect of the relationship between others' social support and the degree of feeling secure have shown that social support is related to women's sense of security.

In the research by Nabavi et al. (2008) in Iran in Ahwaz with the subject of investigating the effect of socio-economic status and ethnic identity on the sense of social security, it was shown that socio-economic status is related to the sense or feeling of social security.

Kamran and Ebadati's studies (2009) in Tehran with the aim of studying the socio-economic factors affecting women's sense of peace and comfort and social security indicated that socio-economic status is related to the sense of social security.

Rahimi (2006) in his master's thesis on the spatial analysis of crime in the city of Karaj identified crime-prone areas and predicted neighborhoods where crime is likely to happen.

Rezazadeh (2010) in an article about urban space underlying social justice examined physical status of cities and reviewed factors underlying the absence of women in urban spaces and areas.

Heshmati (2003) in his master's thesis on defensible space studied urban designing strategies to prevent and reduce crime in urban spaces and areas and dealt with guidelines for reducing crime.

Alireza Nezhad and Saraee (2009) in an article about women in public arena studied public spaces available for urban women and with reference to the cultural, and social changes over time and their effects on women in urban areas dealt with the situation of urban spaces and demanded the necessity of addressing these areas and organization and changes in urban public spaces with special attention to the needs of women regarding women's occupational and academic progresses and achievements.

Mehdizadeh (2009) in an article with the subject of tourism in urban distressed contexts and neighborhood safety emphasized the necessity of providing security in these contexts regarding the importance of tourism in these areas.

Salehi (2007) dealt with the role of environmental designing and planning in safe and secure urban parks and provided strategies for increasing security with reference to appropriate and suitable urban designs and plans.

In an article on urban spaces underlying social justice, Rezazadeh (2010) studied the physical situation of cities and studied the factors contributing to and underlying the absence of women in cities.

In an article entitled evaluation of environmental security in regional parks, Almasi and Ansari (2010) studied women's views on the safety and security of different spaces in parks and studied their subjective appreciation of using certain pathways by getting their impressions and classifying spaces and provided necessary suggestions for reformatations and modifications.

Sarookhani and Navidnia (2007) in their research about family and residence in Tehran have shown with various studies that safety and security of residential neighborhood has effective and significant effects on family's social security.

The realm of the research

Najaf Abad city, the capital city of Najaf Abad province of about 3750 hectares, is located 25 km west of Isfahan on the way of Isfahan to Khuzestan (Shafaghi, 2002). This city is 32 degrees and 38 minutes north latitude and 51 degrees and 22 minutes east of the Greenwich meridian altitude and 1600 meters above sea level (Momeni, 2011).

Materials and method

This study is practical based on the objective and descriptive, analytical, survey based on its nature and cross-sectional based on the time of data collection. The data used in this study is related to the year 2014.

The data collection method is attributive field-survey and the database information is also available. To study the degree of security and safety of women in Najaf Abad, researcher-made questionnaire and interview techniques are used. In this study, to evaluate effective indexes and factors affecting women's safety, SPSS software was used. To determine the validity of the study, structural validity is used by referring to experts and specialists. Factor analysis is used to assess the validity of the research. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is also used to determine the reliability of indicators. The obtained responses are analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics is used to confirm the hypothesis.

Research findings

In this study, random sampling method was used for selecting the sample. Cochrane methodology was used to determine the sample size (Hafeznia, 2011).

$$n = \frac{t^2 pq / d^2}{1 + \frac{1}{N} (\frac{t^2 pq}{d^2} - 1)}$$

In this formula, the value of t is 1.96, and p and q values are 0.5 and N is the population of the city. The sample size was estimated as 50 people.

To measure the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used by SPSS software. The alpha coefficient was obtained to be 0.77. The questionnaire has acceptable reliability.

Table 1. Calculating Cronbach's alpha

| Variable | Appropriate substructures | Investment risk | Natural potential (4seasons) | Cronbach's alpha |
|------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|
| Number of items | 12 | 8 | 8 | 28 |
| Cronbach's alpha | 0.67 | 0.78 | 0.86 | 0.77 |

Research Results

Based on the results of this study, the age of the respondents is as table (2) shows:

Table 2. Frequency distribution of the respondents' age variable

| Age | Percentage | Frequency | Varied percentage |
|------------|------------|-----------|-------------------|
| 15-29 | 14 | 28 | 28.6 |
| 30-49 | 21 | 42 | 42.9 |
| Over 50 | 14 | 28 | 28.6 |
| Total | 49 | 98 | 100 |
| Unanswered | 1 | 12 | |
| Total | 50 | 100 | |

In terms of education, the majority of respondents (23 percent) have high school diploma (Table 3).

Table 3. Frequency distribution of the respondents' level of education

| Level of education | Frequency | Percentage | Varied percentage |
|----------------------------|-----------|------------|-------------------|
| Elementary | 5 | 10 | 10 |
| Secondary | 5 | 10 | 10 |
| High school diploma | 23 | 46 | 46 |
| Bachelor degree and higher | 17 | 34 | 34 |
| Total | 50 | 100 | 100 |

In terms of jobs, the majority of respondents (42 percent) were housewives (Table 4).

Table 4. Frequency distribution of the respondents' job variable

| Job | Frequency | Percentage | Varied percentage |
|---------------|-----------|------------|-------------------|
| Self-employed | 10 | 20 | 20.8 |
| Student | 3 | 6 | 6.3 |
| Employee | 14 | 28 | 29.2 |
| Housewife | 21 | 42 | 43.8 |
| Total | 48 | 96 | 100 |
| Unanswered | 2 | 4 | |
| Total | 50 | 100 | |

In response to the question of (To what extent are you satisfied with the security of your region in the city of Najaf Abad?), 46/0% of the respondents chose moderate option and 2/0% chose the choice very little.

In response to the question (In your opinion, to what extent women feel safe in their urban spaces?), 52/0% of the respondents chose the option average and 18/0% of them chose the option little.

In response to the question (How much does the lighting of passages influence women's feeling of security in Najaf Abad city?), 54/0% of the respondents chose the option high and 8/0% chose little and 8/0% chose medium.

In response to the question (How much does the structure of urban space affect women's feeling of security in the city Najaf Abad?), 56/0% of the respondents chose the option high and 4/0% chose the option little.

In response to the question (To what extent is adherence to appropriate women's cover effective in their sense of security?), 72/0% of the respondents chose the option very high and 2/0% of them chose the option little.

In response to the question (What impact does the hours of being at streets have on women's feeling of security?), 60/0% of the respondents chose the option high and 6/0% of them chose the option little.

In response to the question (To what extent does the quality of urban spaces need organization and planning for women's security?), 56/0% of the respondents chose high and 2/0% of them chose the option very little.

In response to the question (Do you feel secure while being in parks?), 62/0% of the respondents chose the option nearly and 34/0% of them chose yes.

Conclusion and hypothesis testing

Security has objective and subjective dimensions. Objective dimensions can be described based on statistics of crime and crime incidents. However, subjective dimensions which are understood as the interpretation of feeling secure are highly influenced by psychological factors.

Observing designing standards in the residential environment decreases crime and crime incidents in a neighborhood. However, this is not enough to improve the residents' sense of security. It seems that the degree of the socialization of the space and the degree of the residents' sense of belonging to it are other environmental and psychological factors which have a strong influence on the sense or feeling of security.

Environmental quality is provided when the areas that are at the risk of crime are exposed to residents. To achieve this quality, the most important factor in designing is the placement of buildings and activity areas in relation to areas that are prone to crime so that each space is under the control of special controllers. Controllers may be a group or an individual who have a sense of responsibility towards that space or environment.

The scale of the space is also another very important environmental factor affecting the level of security in urban environments. Endless large scale spaces reduce social monitoring. In addition, with the increase of individuals' distance (especially pedestrians) from each other, the possibility of getting help from others decreases. For this purpose and for making large-scale urban spaces such as parks or open spaces between buildings secure, specific measures should be considered. These measures include proper lighting of space, creating different and mixed activities in space, as well as placing it under surveillance and monitoring.

It seems that landscape designers and planners should innovate creativities to increase residents' social cohesion in addition to adopting an appropriate approach to reduce crime rate in space through which crime incidence decreases. Therefore, residents will feel more security and peace.

The first hypothesis

The null hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between the level of social support and women's feeling of social security in Najafabad city.

The contrasting hypothesis

There is a significant relationship between the level of social support and women's feeling of social security in Najafabad city. According to the result of Tav-kendall correlation coefficient and the obtained significance level ($p=0/000$) which is less than 0/05, regarding the relationship between the two variables of social support and feeling secure, with 95% confidence and 5% error it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship between these two variables. The hypothesis of the study based on the relationship between the two variables of social support and a sense of social security

was confirmed and the null hypothesis based on the lack of relationship between these two variables was rejected.

The second hypothesis

The null hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between security of residence place and women's feeling of social security in Najafabad city.

The contrasting hypothesis

There is a significant relationship between security of residence place and women's feeling of social security in Najafabad city.

According to the results of Gamav correlation, the obtained significance level was ($p=0/049$) which is less than 0/05 and regarding the relationship between the two variables of place of residence and social security, with 95% confidence and 5% error, it can be said that there is a statistically significant relationship between these two variables. Therefore, the hypothesis of the study based on the relationship between the two variables of the security of residence place and a sense of social security was confirmed and the null hypothesis based on the lack of relationship between these two variables was rejected.

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Structuring Marketing Failures and Errors: A Model of the Cases of Japanese Firms

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This research uncovers the failures and errors of the marketing strategies embedded in organizations made in their execution, clarifying the problem areas while structuring them based on their types.

Best practices in management and marketing are often covered in the media. Research on the reasons for their success also takes place. Failures and errors, on the other hand, are rarely correctly examined and are ignored and forgotten without being turned into tacit knowledge. Because of this, there is no learning within organizations, and this leads to similar failures being easily repeated. Failures and errors made on site when carrying out marketing activities are spoken of as being particular to those circumstances and are often cited as a reason. Instances of the failures being generalized from an academic aspect are extremely rare. Another point to be raised is that the cause of the failures is ordinarily not simple in nature and is often a complex intertwining of factors related to marketing processes, organizations, and the external environment.

In this research, marketing failures and errors are understood at the corporate, divisional, product category, and product levels. The problems are generalized by utilizing an inductive method, and forming models is attempted through a systems thinking approach.

Credibility of Health News in Turkey: Findings from a Survey

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Abstract

Health, in its most general sense is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as “not only the absence of infirmity or disease, but also people’s being in complete well-being physically, spiritually, mentally and socially.” Therefore, it is one of the issues that concern us all. Moreover, its scope is so wide as to include the fields specified in the definition above. Mass media is the primary media for gaining knowledge about health-related news and information. News and information about health are transmitted in its broadest sense via televisions, newspapers, and the internet every day. Individuals watch news and information about health with interest, obtaining information about both their own health and general population health. The reliability of this news and information is crucially important. In this study, a survey was administered to a Turkish sample to investigate the frequency of their following health-related news and information on television, in newspapers, and on the internet and their levels of trust in this news and information. Results showed that televised health news and programs are watched at a rate of 60% and that 40% of the viewers trust health news, 40% of the viewers read health news in the newspaper and that 27% of them think the news is reliable. Finally, 27% of the viewers search for information relating to health on the internet and 35% of them think it is reliable. In conclusion, individuals rely largely upon television content related to health news; it is possible to conclude that individuals do not largely rely on newspaper content. The percentage of individuals who rely upon internet content is higher than those who do not.

Introduction

Health-related news is among the subjects that people follow most closely and the perception of reliability of this news and information presented via mass media is extremely important to them.

Concepts of trust and reliability are concepts that attract the attention of different fields of social sciences and are dealt with as areas of study. In order to be able to maintain their existence economically and socially, mass media have to keep their sales or ratings at a certain level. Therefore, media content is expected to meet the interests, needs, and expectations of audiences. In this context, it is impossible for the society to respect and trust mass media that do not act independently and objectively because relationships between mass media and target audiences depend on mutual trust. These media continue to exist and perform their duties so long as they derive the support of the society. The society’s having trust in mass media, in turn, depends on their covering news and providing information accurately, impartially, and without coming under pressure (Güz, 2005:88).

Audiences are confronted with different and abundant news that reaches them through mass media. The importance of this news is extremely important as it spreads through a large portion of the society and reaches individuals directly.

Another important issue concerning media and reliability involves accessing accurate information, how the accessed information should be analyzed and how manipulative information can be distinguished

This paper was supported by TÜBİTAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) with the project number 109K534, and Anadolu University Scientific Research Projects Commission (SRPC) with the project number 1000E38.

from true information. As a matter of fact, perception of truth regarding the information presented via mass media is closely related to the source of the news.

Health-related news ranks high among the topics that are followed by people with interest. Many people watch health programs on TV with interest, read such news in the newspapers and search health-related issues on the internet. At this point, the reliability of the health-related news presented by mass media becomes an extremely important subject. In a study conducted by New England Journal of Medicine in 2000, it was revealed that although media exaggerate the benefits and harms, people rely on mass media as a source of information concerning the benefits and risks of medicines (Chambers, 2002:17).

However, an issue that needs to be dwelt upon here is the value that individuals attach to it during media consumption. This study investigates the degree of trust that audiences have in health-related news on TV, in the newspapers, and on the internet.

Reliability and reliability studies

Reliability in its broadest sense can be defined as credible information that is based on truth, precision, and infallibility (Lazar, Meiselwitz, & Feng, 2007:2). Credibility of information is a concept that is closely correlated with reliability. At the same time, it is also closely related to concepts such as quality and authority as well as persuasiveness.

Moreover, reliability is a concept that is based on subjective evaluations from an interpretation by individuals of the media, various sources, and elements of information (Eysenbach, 2008:141).

Initial studies on the reliability of mass media began in the 1950s. Researchers led by James McCroskey continued to investigate the issue in a systematic way through the 1970 and the 1980s, notably the question of the reliability of the message source (Applebaum & Anatol, 1973; Bandhuim & Davis, 1972; Berlo, Lemert, & Mertz, 1969; Falcione, 1974; McCroskey, Hamilton, & Weiner, 1973; McCroskey & Jensen, 1975; McCroskey & Young, 1981).

Researchers in the field of reliability studies have dwelt upon similar definitions of reliability. Most of the studies have indicated that reliability is a complex, independent, and multi-dimensional concept (Mehrabi, Hassan & Ali, 2009:137).

Newspapers and reliability were among the most frequently researched topics in the context of media reliability in the 1980s. In recent years, however, studies seem to have concentrated on comparing and contrasting media and internet reliability. For example, Flanagin and Metzger's (2000) study entitled "Perceptions of Internet Information Credibility" revealed that information on the internet is regarded as reliable as the information on TV. Likewise, a serious increase is observed in the number of studies focusing on the reliability of internet news sites, blogs, and social media (Johnson & Kaye, 2004; Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007).

Lu and Andrew (2006) indicated that there was a significant relationship between trust in the internet, magazines, and newspapers and media use. However, the connection between television viewing and a perception of complete trust in television was not correlated. The relationship between the participants' television viewing and their perceptions of trust was at a significant level (Mehrabi, Hassan & Ali, 2009:137).

On the other hand, some studies (Eastin, 2001; Flanagin & Metzger, 2003) indicate that the problem or the issue's being a striking one has an effect on the perception of trust in media. If the viewers do not perceive the issue or the problem to be serious, then they cannot reach a conclusion about the seriousness and reliability of the media. In other words, the significance or seriousness that viewers attach to the issue primarily affects their interest in the media or the source and their perceptions of reliability. In a study conducted by Austin and Dong (1994) on reliability, it was revealed that the

judgment that the news was reliable was increased by the participants' perception concerning the truth of the message rather than the reputation of the source.

Methodology

This is a descriptive study and the data were obtained from a survey conducted on the target audience of a project conducted in 2013, with support from TÜBİTAK, entitled "Determination Of Health-Related Broadcasting And Publication Principles In Turkey: An Analysis of Health-Related Publications-Broadcasts in the Context of Sources, Messages and Target Audience".

The questions of the questionnaire to be used in the survey within the scope of the project were discussed and determined at a workshop attended by experts selected from among media members and health professionals. First, a pre-test was administered regarding how the questions were perceived and responded by the public and some questions and choices were rewritten.

After the final revision, the survey was administered to 2,503 people in 33 provinces, among 142 neighborhoods and villages in Turkey using the "face-to-face survey in the home" method.

In the determination of the sample, factors such as geographical region, metropolitan city, city, and rural settlements were taken into consideration. In the sample, the top 8 cities with large populations were included as metropolises. The cities were divided into 3 groups depending on the size of their populations and likewise, rural populations were also divided into 3 groups. Random sampling method was used in determining the provinces, districts, towns, neighborhoods, and villages to be visited and these locations were selected randomly in the sample program on the computer.

Findings

Demographic structure of respondents

The demographic characteristics of the people interviewed in the study are shown in the Table below.

| Demographic Characteristics | | Frequency | % |
|-----------------------------|--|-----------|------|
| Gender | Male | 1245 | 49.7 |
| | Female | 1258 | 50.3 |
| Type of Area | City | 845 | 33.8 |
| | Metropolis | 841 | 33.6 |
| | Country (rural) | 817 | 32.6 |
| Age | 25.00 - 34.00 | 658 | 26.3 |
| | <= 24.00 | 529 | 21.1 |
| | 35.00 - 44.00 | 524 | 20.9 |
| | 45.00 - 54.00 | 407 | 16.3 |
| | 55.00 - 64.00 | 230 | 9.2 |
| | 65.00+ | 155 | 6.2 |
| Education | Primary education | 1281 | 51.3 |
| | High School | 656 | 26.3 |
| | Associate degree, bachelor's, and post-graduate degree | 385 | 15.4 |
| | Without a degree/illiterate | 175 | 7 |
| Profession | Housewife | 810 | 32.5 |
| | Civil Servant-Worker | 724 | 29.1 |
| | Those engaged in commercial activities | 404 | 16.2 |
| | Student | 259 | 10.4 |
| | Pensioner (retired) | 212 | 8.5 |
| | Unemployed | 82 | 3.3 |

49.7% of the participants were male while 50.3% were female. 33.8% of the participants lived in cities, while 33.6% lived in metropolitan areas, and 32.6% in rural areas.

26.3% of the respondents were in the 25-34 age range, whereas 21.1% were at age 24 or below, 20.9% were in the 35-44 age range; 16.3% were in the 45-54 age range; 9.2% were in the 55-64 age range, and 6.2% were at age 65 or above.

The educational level of more than half of the participants was primary education (51.3%). The proportion of high-school graduates was 26.3%, whereas the proportion of those with associate degree and bachelor's/post-graduate degree was 15.4%. The proportion of those without degree/illiterate was 7%.

32.5% of the participants in the study were housewives, 29.1% were civil servants/workers, 16.2% engaged in commercial activities, 10.4% were students, 8.5% were retired or pensioners, and 3.3% were unemployed.

Viewing frequency of health-related news or programs on TV and the level of trust in them

The responses given to the question “Do you watch health-related news or programs on TV? If you do, could you say how often you watch them?” are shown in the Table below.

| Frequency of viewing health-related news and programs on TV | Frequency | % |
|--|------------------|------------|
| I never watch them | 985 | 39.6 |
| I watch them occasionally, from time to time | 795 | 31.9 |
| I watch them generally, most of the time | 488 | 19.6 |
| I watch them in cases of curiosity and necessity | 222 | 8.9 |
| TOTAL | 2490 | 100 |

39.6% of those who responded to the question said “they never watched” health-related news and programs. The rate of those who stated that they watched the programs “occasionally, from time to time” was nearly one third (31.9%). The rate of those who said “I watch them generally, most of the time” was 19.6%, whereas the rate of those who said “I watch them in cases of curiosity and necessity” was 8, 9%. In the Table, the rate of those who never watched health-related broadcasts is very significant. According to this, it can be said that about 40% of the society never watches such programs while 60% of the society watches them this way or that way and among these people, about 20% “watch them most of the time”.

When the matter was investigated in the context of demographic characteristics, it was seen that as far as the gender variable was concerned, almost half of the male participants responded “I never watch them” (43%), but this rate was lower in women (30.9%). The rate of women who responded “I watch them generally, most of the time” (24.8%) was higher than men (14.4%). These results can be interpreted to mean that women watch these programs significantly more frequently than men.

As far as educational level was concerned, the rate of primary education graduates was higher (23.6%) among those who responded “I watch them generally, most of the time”. This rate was 17.6% among high school graduates whereas it fell to a lower rate of 13.3% among graduates of higher education. The group which stated that they never watched those programs involved people with the highest level of education (49.1%).

It was found that 24% of those who said, regarding health-related broadcasts and programs, “I watch them generally, most of the time” were residents of metropolises. 16.3% of those who gave the same response lived in the country. When general tendencies are taken into consideration, it can be said that a decrease occurs in the level of watching health-related broadcasts as one moves from the metropolises to the country.

Almost half of those below age 24 (49.9%) stated that they “never watch” the broadcasts. The rate of those who said they “never watch” was 41.7% in the 25-34 age group. In these two groups, the rate of “watching occasionally” was at the level of 31%. In the higher age groups, the rate of TV viewing increased. In the 55-64 age group, the rate of “watching generally, most of the time” was at its highest (28.1%). The rate of those who said they watched occasionally was the highest in the 35-44 age group (34.5%).

In the context of professions, on the other hand, it was found that more than half of the unemployed participants (53.1%) and half of the students (50.2%) never watched health-related broadcasts. 24.3% of the housewives never watched such broadcasts whereas 37.4% of them responded that they “watched them occasionally, from time to time”. The choice “I watch them generally, most of the time” was common especially among women (28%). Almost one fourth of the pensioners (23.7%), on the other hand, responded with the choice “I watch generally, most of the time”. According to this, it can be said that pensioners and housewives watched health-related news and programs more frequently than members of other professions.

Those who responded with the choice “I never watch them” to the question about health-related broadcasts above were asked to what extent they found the information in health-related news and programs reliable. The results of those who stated that they watched these programs one way or other are shown below.

| To what extent do you find the information in health-related news and programs on TV reliable? | Frequency | % |
|---|------------------|--------------|
| I always rely on it | 237 | 15.8 |
| I generally rely on it | 366 | 24.4 |
| I partially (sometimes) rely on it | 558 | 37.1 |
| I seldom rely on it | 258 | 17.2 |
| I never rely on it | 84 | 5.6 |
| TOTAL | 1503 | 100.0 |

Among the responses to the question, the one that was selected most frequently was “I partially (sometimes) rely on it” (37.1%). It was found that the second most preferred response was “I generally rely on it” with a rate of 24.4%. The proportion of those who responded to the question with the choice “I always rely on it” was 15.8%, whereas the proportion of those who responded “I never rely on it” was 5.6%.

It was found that the gender variable did not make much difference on the responses given to this question. 37.6% of the female participants and 36.4% of the male participants responded “I partially (sometimes) rely on it”. While the proportion of female participants who responded “I always rely on it” was 16.3%, the proportion of male participants who gave the same response was 15.1%.

A majority of the participants who responded to this question with the choice “I generally rely on it” (34.4%) had “associate degree and bachelor’s/post-graduate degree” level of education. Those who least gave this response were those who were “without a degree/illiterate” with a rate of 16.3%. This finding indicates that those with higher levels of education relied more on broadcast contents.

According to the age variable, the overall tendency concerning the reliability of the information presented in the news and programs was in favor of the choice “I partially (sometimes) rely on it”. Among the respondents to the survey, those who stated that they “always rely on” the content with the highest rates were those aged 65 and above (19.4%) and those in the 45-54 age group (19%). 10.3% of the those aged 24 and below responded with the choice “I always rely on it”. According to this, it can be said that the elderly people rely more on broadcast contents than other age groups.

Those who responded with the highest rate to the choice “I seldom rely on” the information in broadcast contents were the participants who lived in the country (20.7%). The same response was given by those living in metropolises with the lowest rate (11.5%). However, those who responded to this question “I always rely on it” with the highest rate (20.7%) were those who lived in metropolises.

Almost half of the students said “I partially (sometimes) rely on it” (44.9%). The same response was given by almost one third of those who engaged in commercial activities (33.3%) and civil servants and workers (33.9%). Another noteworthy response to this question was that 30.6% of the pensioners said “I generally rely on it”.

The frequency of reading the health-related news and articles in the newspapers and the level of reliability

99.5% of the participants (n=2491) responded to this question. The distribution of the responses given is shown in the Table below.

| Do you read t health-related news and articles in the newspapers? If you do, could you say how often you read them? | Frequency | % |
|--|------------------|------------|
| I never read them | 1523 | 61.1 |
| I read them sometimes, from time to time | 431 | 17.3 |
| I read them generally, most of the time | 355 | 14.3 |
| I read them in cases of curiosity and necessity | 182 | 7.3 |
| TOTAL | 2491 | 100 |

According to the frequency distribution of the responses, more than half of the participants (61.1%) stated that they “never” read health-related articles. The proportion of those who read health-related articles “sometimes, from time to time” was 17.3% whereas the proportion of those who read them “most of the time” was 14.3% and ranked third. Among the responses to the question, the reply “I read them in cases of curiosity and necessity” ranked last with a rate of 7.3%.

When the responses given to the question were analyzed in the context of demographic characteristics, it was understood that the gender variable did not make a significant difference. When the responses given to the question were analyzed in terms of the age distribution of the participants, it was interesting that those aged 65 and above gave the response “I generally read” health-related articles in the newspapers (17.4%) in the second place contrary to the overall tendency.

When it was assessed together with the age variable, it can be said that in contrast with the overall tendency, those aged 65 and above read the health-related articles in the newspapers “generally, most of the time”, not “occasionally, from time to time”.

When the frequency of reading health-related news and articles in the newspapers was evaluated in the context of the profession variable, it was found that in contrast with the overall tendency, housewives responded “I never read them” with the highest rate (68.6%) whereas pensioners gave the same response with the lowest rate (52.8%). On the other hand, the response “I read in cases of curiosity and necessity” was given by the students at the highest rate.

When the distribution of the participants was considered regarding the variable of education, it was seen that those with high school and higher level of education read health-related news and articles more frequently.

When the responses given by the participants were taken into consideration in regard to the variable of region, it was understood that unlike the overall tendency, those who lived in metropolises gave the response “I read the health-related articles in the newspapers generally, most of the time” (20%) in the second place. When the responses given to the question were evaluated, it was observed that the rates of reading health-related articles exhibited variation from the metropolises to the country. The response of reading “generally”, which stood at the rate of 20% in metropolises, fell to 13.8% in cities, and 8.8% in the country.

Those other than the ones who responded “I never read them” to the above question concerning health-related articles in the newspapers and magazines were asked to what extent they relied on the news and articles in the newspapers and magazines. The results are shown in the Table below.

| To what extent do you find the health-related information in the news and articles in the newspapers reliable? | Frequency | % |
|---|------------------|------------|
| I partially (sometimes) rely on it | 435 | 45.2 |
| I seldom rely on it | 197 | 20.5 |
| I generally rely on it | 189 | 19.6 |
| I always rely on it | 71 | 7.4 |
| I never rely on it | 71 | 7.4 |
| TOTAL | 963 | 100 |

38.5% of those who participated in the survey responded to the questions about the reliability of the health-related news and articles. The data indicated that almost half of the respondents, in other words 45.2% of them, found the health-related articles “partially, sometimes” reliable. The other responses given the question were “I seldom rely on it” (20.5%) and “I generally rely on it” (19.6%) respectively. The responses “I always rely on it” and “I never rely on it” were given by the same proportion of participants (7.4%).

When the reliability levels of the health-related news and articles in the newspapers were considered in the context of gender variable, it was found that contrary to the overall tendency, male participants gave the response “I generally rely on it” (20.1%) in the second place. The response “I seldom rely on it”, which ranked second on the national level, ranked third among men (18.1%).

In the context of age groups, on the other hand, the responses “I generally rely on it” (18.4% 17%) and “I seldom rely on it” (18%; 17%) given by the participants in the 25- 34 age group and in the 45-54 age group respectively were similar to one another. However, in the 65 and above age group, the proportion of those who responded “I generally rely on it” was higher (29.4%). Moreover, the proportion of those who responded “I never rely on it” in this age group and among those aged 45 and above was higher than the proportion of those aged below 45. The response “I never rely on it” was given at the lowest rate by the participants below the age of 24 (4.6%).

When the responses given to the question are evaluated in the context of education variable, it can be said that the participants with high school and higher education found the health-related news and articles in the newspapers “more reliable” than those with education level below high school.

When the responses given by the participants were evaluated in terms of the type of region, it was striking that from the metropolises to the country, there was a “negative and decreasing” tendency concerning the reliability of the health-related news and articles in the newspapers. While those who lived in metropolises responded “I generally rely on it” at a rate of 23.2%, this figure fell to 17% in the country. On the other hand, more than half of those living in cities responded “I partially/sometimes rely on it”.

Frequency of looking at health-related pages on the internet and the level of reliability

Of the participants of the survey, about three-fourths of the 2492 people who responded to this question, in other words 73.1% of them, marked the choice “I never look at them; I do not have internet connection”. 9.4% of the participants who used the internet stated that they looked at health pages “sometimes, from time to time”, while 9.2% responded “in cases of curiosity and necessity” and 8.3% responded “generally, most of the time”.

| Do you look at the health-related pages on the internet? If you do, could you say how often you look at them? | Frequency | % |
|--|------------------|------------|
| I look at them, generally, most of the time | 207 | 8.3 |
| I look at them sometimes, from time to time | 235 | 9.4 |
| I look at them in cases of curiosity and necessity | 229 | 9.2 |
| I never look at them, I do not have internet connection, I do not use it | 1821 | 73.1 |
| TOTAL | 2492 | 100 |

When the cross tables were considered in the context of demographic characteristics, a significant difference from the overall tendency was not encountered among the responses.

In the context of the ages of the participants, the rate of those in the 25-34 age group (11.5%) and those below age 24 (10.8%) was higher than the general average (8.3%) among those who responded "I generally look at them". Likewise, among those who responded "I sometimes look at them", the rate of those in the 25-34 age group (12.7%) and those below age 24 (13.1%) was higher than the general average (9.4%). The rate of these people's looking "in cases of necessity" was also high (25-34 age group: 12.5%; age 24 and below: 17%). Therefore, it can be said that the internet use frequency of those aged 34 and below was greater than those aged older. Accordingly, the rate of "never looking" was more than 9 out of 10 among people in the 55-64 age group (92.6%) and those aged 65 and above (98%). People in this age group almost never looked at the internet concerning health-related articles.

The rate of consulting the internet according to the education groups was higher among those with high school and higher education whereas it was at the level of almost "never" among those with primary and lower education. The rate of "looking generally" was 12% among high school graduates while it was at the level of 19.6% among those with associate degree and higher education. The rate of "sometimes looking" was at the level of 13% among high school graduates and 18.8% among those with associate degree and higher education. The rate of "looking in cases of necessity", on the other hand, was 14% among high school graduates and 20.1% among those with associate degree and higher education. However, the rate of "never looking" was 96.6% among those without a degree and 85.5% among those with primary school education.

In the context of regions, on the other hand, the rates of "generally looking" (12.2%), "sometimes looking" (12.8%) and "looking in cases of necessity" (11.6%) were higher than the general average among those living in metropolises. Among those living in the country, the rate of "never looking" was at the highest level in the context of regions (84.4%).

Those who responded to this question "I never look at them, I do not have internet connection, I do not use it", were not asked to what extent they found the health-related pages on the internet reliable. Therefore, the reliability level of those who followed health-related news and articles is shown below.

| To what extent do you find the health-related news and articles on the internet reliable? | Frequency | % |
|--|------------------|------------|
| I always rely on them | 68 | 10.2 |
| I generally rely on them | 170 | 25.4 |
| I partially (sometimes) rely on them | 268 | 40.1 |
| I seldom rely on them | 127 | 19 |
| I never rely on them | 36 | 5.4 |
| TOTAL | 669 | 100 |

40.1% of the 669 people who responded to this question said "I partially (sometimes) rely on them". More than one fourth (25.4%) of the participants responded "I generally rely on them" while 10.2% of them responded "I always rely on them". However, the rates of the participants who responded "I seldom rely on them" (19%) and "I never rely on them" (5.4%) were lower.

In the context of demographic characteristics, a rate different from the general average was not observed in regard to the gender variable. However, the rate of “finding generally reliable” was above the general average in the age 24 and below group (31.9%). On the other hand, the rate of “finding partially reliable” was higher than the general average in all the groups above age 35. The rate of “never relying”- though the number of individuals was limited- was at the highest level in the 55-64 age group (17.6%).

In the context of education variable, the rate of “generally relying” was higher than the general average among those with associate degree and higher education (32.7%). The response “seldom relying” was at a high level among primary school graduates (25.9%).

General evaluation and conclusion

On the basis of the findings obtained from the survey, the views of the public regarding the health-related broadcasts and publications were brought together under this title to be compared and contrasted in the context of type of broadcast or publication. First, the data about the reliability levels of the participants concerning health-related broadcast and publication contents on TV, in the newspapers, and on the internet were compared. Below you will find the comparison.

| To what extent do you find reliable (health-related contents)? (%) | Television | Newspaper | Internet |
|--|------------|------------|------------|
| I always rely on them | 15.8 | 7.4 | 10.2 |
| I generally rely on them | 24.4 | 19.6 | 25.4 |
| I partially (sometimes) rely on them | 37.1 | 45.2 | 40.1 |
| I seldom rely on them | 17.2 | 20.5 | 19 |
| I never rely on them | 5.6 | 7.4 | 5.4 |
| TOTAL | 100 | 100 | 100 |

According to this, it was understood that the most preferred category among the three was “I partially (sometimes) rely on them”. The highest rate in this category belonged to the newspapers (45.2%). It was found that if the categories of “I always rely on them” and “I generally rely on them”, which stayed above this, were combined, then, the highest rate of reliance on health-related contents was among television viewers (40.2%). It was followed by trust in the internet content (35.4%). If the categories of “I seldom rely on them” and “I never rely on them” were combined, then, the medium on which the reliance was the lowest or whose rate of not being relied on was higher was the newspapers (27.9%). It was immediately followed by the internet (24.4%).

One can say as a result of an examination of the table that except for those who rely “partially” or “sometimes”, television content was largely trusted whereas newspaper contents were largely distrusted. On the other hand, those who relied on internet content were higher in number than those who did not rely on them. The results indicate that there is a general reliance on health-related news and contents in the media. At this point, while presenting health-related news and contents, media have to report true and accurate news taking into consideration the fact that people rely on such news and contents.

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Dematerialization and Use of Social Networks in Public Administrations: Emergence of Citizen Relationship Management (CiRM) in Morocco

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Abstract

The use of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) as a way of transformation is no longer demonstrated in just the field of the CiRM (Citizen Relationship Management). Indeed, we have today at our disposal tools not only for our daily or professional life, but also in the service of our public institutions' modernization to improve CiRM. Simplify procedures, allow decentralization of decisions, facilitate access to information, reduce extensions, better manage markets, and develop services are all benefits expected by those who are today the pioneers of e-Government. Morocco is not escaping this technological revolution. Its opening on Europe has enabled it to be particularly aware of these changes and to follow them when possible. The present work therefore aims to demonstrate how public administration in Morocco can benefit from dematerialization and social networks in their citizen relationship management, their internal management, relationships with suppliers and with other administrative bodies.

Keywords: ICT, dematerialization, Citizen Relationship Management (CiRM), e-government, social networks.

Showing Emotions and Engaging Electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWOM) in Social Media through Mobile Devices

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Social media has become an integral part of our life. Hundreds of millions of users post status updates, share pictures and comment on others' content on a daily basis. The most popular site is Facebook which reports well over a billion active users. Twitter, Instagram and Sina Weibo, among others, have also grown exponentially in recent years. One reason for this growth is the *emergence of mobile devices* which have enabled people to access social media when they are away from their PCs. In addition to changes in peoples' everyday life, social media has also transformed organisations' business landscape. Many studies have witnessed the multiplication of small influential changes (Tadic et al., 2012; Hemsley & Mason 2013). Social media has enabled customers and other stakeholders to voice opinions about an organisation and its products and services. Conventionally these opinions are based on individuals' own experiences, rumours, beliefs and prejudices. In other words, social media provides people not only with new ways of searching and sharing factual information, but also a context for *showing emotions*. As it has been shown that emotional messages tend to be diffused more widely than neutral ones (Dan-Xuan & Stieglitz 2013), it is not a surprise that some companies have gained positive and free publicity, whereas some other companies have faced verbal threats and boycotts.

Emotional behaviour in social media has been studied from different perspectives. The picture these studies paint is, however, fairly ambiguous. Some of them argue that users prefer to create, share, read and watch content that reflects *positive* emotions (Fulwood et al., 2009; Bae & Lee, 2012), while others argue that social media satisfies the need to vent *negative* feelings (Leung, 2013; Verhagen et al., 2013). What is common for these studies is that they share the conviction that emotion relates to meaningful events and has an object at which it is intuitively or intentionally directed. For example, when a customer is unsatisfied with the quality of a product or service he/she receives, he/she is able to put his/her disappointment into words and share it through different social media sites. In contrast, when a customer receives very good treatment from the company, it gives him/her motivation to express positive emotions within his/her network.

Seemingly, social media has shifted the power from the company to the customers (Berthon et al. 2012) by giving them an option to voice positive and negative emotions without any censorship. Word-of-mouth (WOM) provides a useful approach to address the change in the power balance. WOM refers to information people receive from their peers. WOM has been found to exert a great influence on consumer decision-making. There are at least three reasons which explain this. Firstly, peer information is typically seen more reliable and credible than information provided by companies (Brown et al., 2007). Secondly, compared to traditional (offline) WOM, it has been suggested that eWOM has more impact than traditional WOM because of its substantial reach (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2004; Jones, 2009). Traditional WOM is mainly limited to a circle of acquaintances, while eWOMs reach a potentially global audience. Thirdly, eWOM is effective because the information can be retrieved at a moment in time closer to the purchase decision (Edwards, 2006).

Given the fact that mobile use of social media is rising rapidly (comScore 2013 and 2014), it can be hypothesised that mobile devices, such as smart phones and tablets, have made it quicker and easier to present emotional content. By sharing photos, videos and verbal communications, individuals are able to express joy and happiness as well as anger and annoyance without time lag. The paper presumes that mobile devices have increased the importance of the time component in eWOM by shortening the perception–reaction time – i.e. the time needed between the event and the reaction to it. From

individuals' point of view, mobile use of social media has meant more possibilities to actualise an imagined creation in concrete social relation and "making use what is postulated/constructed as a freedom to act in the words 'I can'" (cf. Agamben, 1999).

Based on the above mentioned, *this paper explores the nexus between the mobile use of social media and emotional behaviour*. The paper asks whether mobile use of social media tempts to disclose emotionally spoken content (visual or verbal communications). To answer the question, two studies were conducted. Study 1 surveyed a socio-demography of disclosing negative emotions in social media through mobile devices. Study 2 analysed whether the polarity of tweets posted by mobile phones differed from those posted by PCs.

From companies' perspective, the mobile use of social media is a challenge. It has increased the odds that companies are forced to face emotional out bursts. The paper underscores the importance of managing both positive and negative social media content. The paper contributes to eWOM research by providing a new insight on how the mobile use of social media influences expressing and sharing emotionally spoken content. The paper also helps practitioners to recognise opportunities to manage (exploit positive and prevent negative) emotionally inspired social media content shared through mobile devices.

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Determining the Digital Plagiarism Causes and Types of Secondary School Students

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Abstract

The Internet has become the world's main information resource. The illegal and unethical use of the Internet is well known with respect to digital plagiarism. The aim of this research is to determine the digital plagiarism types and reasons for resorting to this behavior by secondary school students who are frequently using the internet as an information source. This study involves qualitative research and used a phenomenological design. A total of 22 secondary school students were selected for the study using a purposeful sampling method in the 2013 and 2014 academic years. Data were gathered by using semi-structured interview forms and were analyzed through a content analysis method. The results showed that the types of digital plagiarism were copy-paste, prepared homework, funded test trots, use of the pictures found on the web, and giving or taking home work between their friends. Also, to save time, its convenience, avoiding writing, concerns about making the wrong kind of submission and errors of fact, the difficulty of doing homework with a book, the fun of the Internet, and lack of self-confidence were expressed as digital plagiarism motives by the students.

Keywords: digital plagiarism, causes of the plagiarism, types of the plagiarism, ICTs

The present study was based on a scientific research project funded by Necmettin Erbakan University Scientific Research Foundation – number 152518001-222 – called ‘Determining Digital Plagiarism Causes and Types of Secondary School Students’ and it was also part of Feyza Uzun’s master thesis.

Aesthetic Ecopsychology as a Way towards Salvation

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Abstract

The ecopsychology movement offers many paths in support of environmental solutions. By carefully choosing and tailoring a personal ecopsychological value system for understanding the social problems that allow cultures to degrade and destroy their environment, photographers and other artists can create a framework for creating art that echoes positive ecological values. For the author, this framework has included shifting understandings about her inner psychological world to one that embraces and identifies with features of the natural world. By photographing the natural environment in a manner that appeals to the aesthetic sensibilities that most people retain as at least one, if not their last connection to the outside world, the author hopes to participate in an environmental revolution. The thrust of this paper is the author's presentation on her environmental strategy of photographing the flora and fauna found on the trails surrounding the University of Brunei Darussalam (UBD) Kuala Belalong Field Studies Centre, in the heart of the Ulu Temburong National Park. The author will supported her work, which resulted in a two person photographic art exhibition "A Slice of Light: A Stroke in Time" on the UBD campus, April 2015, by aligning her conceptual intentions on the topic of ecopsychology with notable leading practitioners in this field.

Keywords: Arts, photography, ecopsychology, environmental study, practice-based research & field study

Introduction

Not all journeys can be traced back to a beginning. Some arise in our mind's eye and we never travel them beyond our imagination, while other sojourns must be undertaken because our ancestors set out on certain paths that we must traverse until it is time for us to turn off into the twilight and make way for the next generation of travelers. Branching out like a great towering tree in the rainforest, the many forking routes that split our secure path into smaller twig-like trails beckon to us, but we are unsure of which trail to follow. Choosing which path to take is what life is all about. Also, how we explore the world around us, and how we maintain the trail for others to follow is important. As explorers in any environment, whether it is a grand primal rainforest like Ulu Temburong, in Brunei Darussalam, or a beach where crustaceans make their home and sea-turtles lay their eggs, we must tread lightly – leaving nothing behind except footprints, and taking home only photographs and memories.

The Camera As A Third-Eye

When Geiger-Ho is engaged in the process of taking pictures, she thinks of her camera as her "third-eye". Her third eye is a technologically advanced mechanical device with a lens capable of recording the world that she sets before it. Her camera (She uses several relatively inexpensive ones) can "capture" an image and store it by translating it into electrical light signals, something that her own light sensitive eyes are not able to do. Sure, she can see the world around her with great clarity (thanks to her glasses), but she cannot store this information with any fidelity like a digital camera with a memory card can. Before our current digital age, she used various 35mm cameras that also stored perfectly captured images on film that she could print out herself or have printed. Back then there was a saying, "the camera never lies", which reinforced the notion that the integrity of information recorded by the camera was accurate and true. Today, that saying is rarely heard because nowadays it's easier than ever to change and reinvent an image before either printing it or posting it on social media. However, even with all of the technological advances that make today's specialized cameras and lenses capable of visualizing the world in ways that our own eyes never could do alone, a camera can only capture an

image that its user programs it to. This is why Geiger-Ho relies on a camera that she can use as her third technologically advanced eye. Along with her ingrained training in art and design, she uses her camera as a tool to help her to capture what her mind and body sense and even yearn for when she is exploring a subject that she wants to capture and display. Ironically, one of the reoccurring image themes (Figs. 1 and 2) that Geiger-Ho captured during her short foray into the tropical rainforest of Ulu Temburong, was the direct way in which the landscape seemed to return her gaze through its own reflection!



Figure 1: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Ulu Eyes are Everywhere*. 2014. Digital print, 20"H x 30"W.

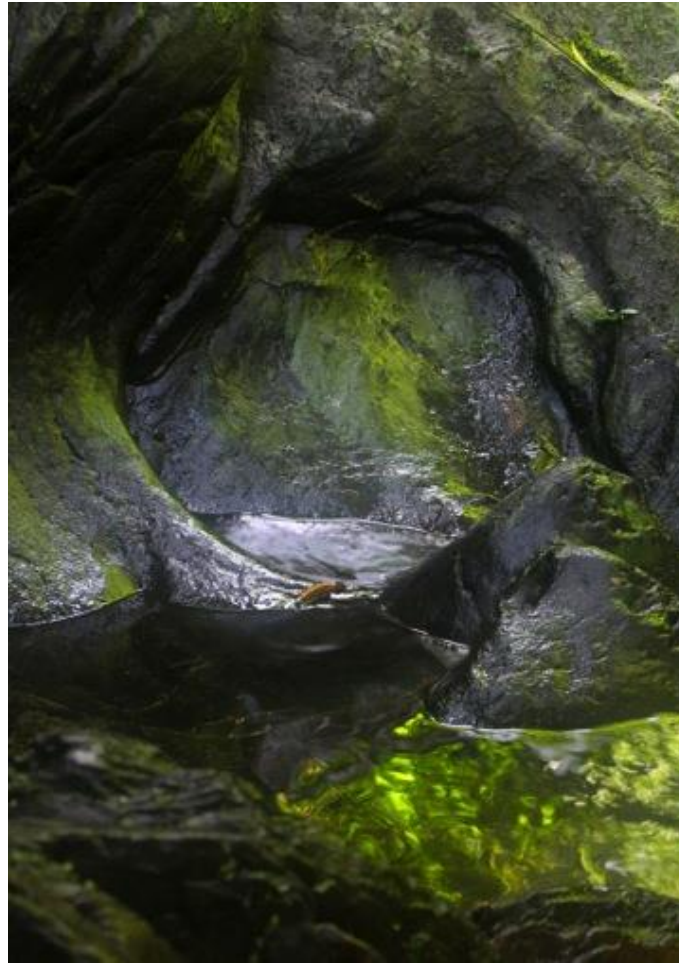


Figure 2: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Ulu Temburong River Watcher*. 2014. Digital print, 30"H x 20"W.

What Geiger-Ho is trying to do through her aesthetically trained eye is to connect her own senses, and later, that of her viewers, to the rhythm of the natural world that is profoundly different from our time-driven human environment. Because these different environments, both manmade and natural, affect our human psyche in various ways, it is of the utmost importance that our responses to these differences are noted so that as human beings we can learn how to balance our needs and desire for wilderness spaces with our insatiable quest for resources. Perhaps instead of visiting cookie-cutter amusement parks, people should visit natural places where they can slow down and reconnect with the natural world. For very obvious reasons, many people cannot venture out into the wilds, and that is one of the reasons for why she chose to photograph a small portion of the Ulu Temburong rainforest. Besides fulfilling her own curiosity about this protected region, she wanted to bring back images that could act as a balm for people who might find them comforting against the nerve jarring hustle and bustle of everyday modern life. In her photos, *Rajah Brooke's Birdwing Seeking Minerals* and *Green Garden Lizard*, (Figs. 3 and 4), Geiger-Ho presents the viewer with simple uncomplicated rather common images of creatures that could be found in both Bruneian gardens as well as the Ulu Temburong rainforest. This concept of uplifting the demeanor of people through their surroundings, to include patterns and images, is best expressed by the contemporary depth psychologist James Hillman (1995) in his opening essay, "A Psyche the Size of the Earth", where he explains that:

Environmental medicine and environmental psychiatry have begun to look at actual places and things, like carpets and drapes, for their effects on human disorders. When some cancers are hypothesized to begin in people suffering recent loss, what loss? Is it only personal? Or does a personal loss open the gates to that less conscious but overwhelming loss—the slow disappearance of the natural world, a loss endemic to our entire civilization? In that case, the idea that depth psychology merges with ecology translates to mean that to understand the ills of the soul today we turn to the ills of the world, its suffering. (p. xxi)



Figure 3: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Rajah Brooke's Birdwing Seeking Minerals*. 2014. Digital print, 14"H x 21"W.



Figure 4: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Green Garden Lizard*. 2014. Digital print, 14"H x 21"W.

By studying the convictions and arguments set forth by ecopsychologists and other environmental leaders in similar fields, Geiger-Ho has been able to strike a balance between making art and taking photographs that express her convictions about ecology while at the same time allowing her room to explore images and forms that can speak to others about the mystery and grandeur of the natural world.

In his discussion of how to experience a spiritual and deep connection to the natural world that he says the human race was born into, the Jungian analyst, Lionel Corbett (2007) explains that, "Whatever form it takes, spirituality includes the intuition or insight that there is another level of reality beyond our ordinary perception of the world" (p. 215). Corbett also notes that:

We realize that our everyday personality is not the deepest part of ourselves, that there is something More to us. We recognize the spiritual importance of relationships and the profound mystery of the other, which is not separate from us or from That Which Is. We treat animals and the environment with respect because we instinctively recognize that they too are manifestations of the Source. We recognize that our creative work happens through us and does not originate within our ego. We notice and value beauty, which expands our sense of self to include more than ourselves. We realize the dangers of sectarianism, competitiveness, and exclusivity. (p. 215)

Finally, Corbett reminds his reader that people lose sight of these important insights into living a more natural and spiritual life because the fragility of their selves makes them respond to everyday events in ways that are defensive, self-protective, and self-centered.

Nature as "Other" and Nature as Self

Geiger-Ho believes that by realizing the complexity of today's environmental issues in terms of world views as expressed by people from a technologically advanced and well informed society like that of the US, an understanding for finding solutions through compromise and analysis of humankind's destructive behavior towards their environment can begin to happen. Because her own approach to recognizing her environmental values and the tangible ways that she can practice them in her life and through her art, was formed in part through research into how specialists, such as Paul Wapner, who is an Associate Professor and Director of the Global Environmental Politics Program in the School of International Service at American University, view and outline, through intelligent discourse, what "nature" means and does not mean today.

In his book, *Living Through the End of Nature*, Paul Wapner (2010) argues that saving nature from humankind is no longer possible since our planet has already been so altered by human activities. Instead, Wapner proposes that environmentalists now have an opportunity to build a new more effective political movement that can help bring together the two polarized views of those who seek to live in harmony in with nature and those who wish to master and tame it. Moreover, Wapner points out that not only are their differing concepts about what constitutes a philosophical understanding of what it means to be an environmentalist looking to protect the natural world, but he delves deep into the huge rift between the world views of Americans who might be deemed extreme environmentalists who can be seen working towards the sensibility of the "dream of naturalism" (Wapner, p. 22) and their critics who "... who see nature as merely the biophysical backdrop for human life" (Wapner, p. 23). Wapner categorizes these latter folks, who see nature as a wild force to be tamed, as being engaged in the psychological ideal of harboring a "dream of mastery" over the natural world (Wapner, p. 23).

Realizing the many factors that needed to be taken into consideration before deciding on the best available course of action to take regarding her decision to create photographic work as a means for practicing her own brand of environmentalism, Geiger-Ho found that she needed to not only research current theories on the topic, but she also needed to understand her own motives for wanting to commit something to its cause. Although she found it apparent that she fell somewhere firmly in what Wapner called the dream of naturalism camp, she did feel that she was also a "realist" who concurred with the notion that human activity had encroached upon the entire planet through large scale human activities. Also, when she examined her own motives for wanting to use photography as a means for speaking out for the rainforest in Brunei Darussalam, she realized that she was suffering from the knowledge that the destruction of eco systems and habitats were being lost at unprecedented rates around the globe. Geiger-Ho found that painting scenes, making sculpture from the earth and taking photographs of the world around her in Brunei, helped to ease her grief and establish a sense of better well-being in others who also enjoyed her artistic views of nature in Brunei.

Conclusion

Using photography to both document habitat loss as well as to celebrate and capture its profound spiritual eloquence, Geiger-Ho uses her camera to record details of the immediate natural world to simultaneously celebrate the richness of Brunei's varied landscapes, both within and outside of Ulu Temburong. By using different approaches for photographing the terrain around her, she hoped that she can stir a sense of longing in the viewer for what could be lost through development, negligence or poaching. What Geiger-Ho is trying to accomplish through her aesthetically trained eye is to connect her own senses, and later, that of her viewers, to the rhythm of the natural world that is profoundly different to our time driven human environment. Because these different environments affect our human psyche in various ways, it is of the utmost importance that our responses to these differences are noted so that as human beings we can learn how to balance our needs and desire for wilderness with our need for a built-over "civilized" world.

The ecopsychology movement offers many paths in support of environmental solutions. By carefully choosing and tailoring a personal ecopsychological value system for understanding the social problems that allow cultures to degrade and destroy their environment, photographers and other artists can create a framework for creating art that echoes positive ecological values. For Geiger-Ho, this framework has included shifting her understanding about her inner psychological world to one that embraces and identifies with features of the natural world. By photographing the natural environment in a manner that appeals to the aesthetic sensibilities that most people retain as at least one, if not their last connection to the outside world, she hopes to participate in an environmental revolution that Lester Brown (1995) describes as a change in values that comes from the growing realization that everyone is dependent upon the natural world (p. xvi). In her photos, *Sun Drenched Upper Canopy* and *Living Proof of Life After Death* (Figs. 5 and 6), Geiger-Ho reveals her ecological values towards the protection of the tropical rainforest. These values tend toward her desire that we leave delicate eco-systems intact, because we do not have the collective wisdom to properly manage the environments that we currently inhabit.



Figure 5: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Sun Drenched Upper Canopy*. 2014. Digital print, 14"H x 21"W.



Figure 6: Martie Geiger-Ho. *Living Proof of Life After Death*. 2014. Digital print, 14"H x 21"W.

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The Assessment of the Farm-to-Table Strategy

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Abstract

This research aims to assess the food safety strategy implementation of the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MOAC). The CIPP model (context, input, process and product) was used for this evaluation. Primary data was collected from farmers, government officers, and exporters by using questionnaires, in-dept-interviews and observations. Secondary data was received from the MOAC. The study found that the Department of Agriculture(DOA) has already practiced the food safety standard. Farmers and government officers' attitude toward food safety strategy are in the more important level. Exporters also had high ability to compliance with the importer food safety standards. However, MOAC should provide sufficient resources to DOA. The efficiency and effectiveness of the MOAC's food safety strategy implementation in the future should consider risk assessment, risk management, and risk communication. These will make Thailand "The Kitchen of the World".

Introduction

Food safety has been used for protecting consumer health since ancient times (Randell, 2000). However, some countries also used food safety as a non-tariff barriers tool (Lichtenberg, 2003). At present many countries realize their obligations to consumers' health. Food standards and control systems are now necessary (Marovatsanga, 2000). Thai government has also become aware of the requirements and problems related to food safety issues. Therefore, the Thai cabinet assigned the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (MOAC) and the Ministry of Public Health to implement food safety strategy on 4 March, 2003. Finally, the MOAC had the farm to table strategy from 2004 to 2009 to promote Thailand as "The Kitchen of the World".

The objective of this research is to evaluate the food safety strategy implementation of the MOAC. Also, the result of the evaluation will require their work to be more efficient and effective. This implementation also brings up competitive advantages in the basic production of the upstream and downstream food industry in Thailand. From these initiatives, the Thai economy will grow for long-term sustainability.

Methodology

This study used CIPP model (Stufflebeam, 1993) for assessment. Durian and the areas of study in Chanthaburi provinces were chosen by the Department of Agriculture (DOA). Primary data was collected from durian farmers and government officers of the DOA in Chanthaburi province (Office of Agriculture Research and Development Region 5) and exporters by using questionnaire, in-dept-interview and observation. Secondary data was collected from the Office of Agriculture Research and Development Region 5, the Department of Agriculture, the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives, and the National Bureau of Agricultural Commodity and Food Standards.

The sample size was calculated by using the formula of Yamane (1973). Questionnaires were sent to 319 durian farmers, 25 government officers and 109 durian exporters. The number of farmers, government officers of DOA (Office of Agriculture Research and Development Region 5) and exporters questionnaires used in this study were 263, 24 and 16 respectively. The Kruder Richardson 20 (KR 20) of durian farmer's knowledge (GAP/standard farm) is 0.78. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of durian farmer's attitude toward the food safety strategy is 0.89. In addition, the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient of DOA officer attitudes toward the food safety strategy is 0.92. The Alpha Coefficient and KR 20 disclose the questionnaires reliability (Nunally, 1978).

Results

The study found that the DOA has implemented food safety standards since 1974. The evaluation of government officers of the office of Agriculture Research and Development Region 5 showed that they had too many responsibilities compared to the number of staff. Additionally, they are temporary employees. This brought a greater burden for training new staff. It also impacted on the efficiency of farm to table strategy implementation. Besides, we found that resources (vehicles and instruments) were not sufficient. However, DOA managed their resources very well by using pooled resources such as the car pool.

Table 1 shows that the durian farmers' knowledge, Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) / standard farm, in the Chanthaburi Province are at a satisfactory level (Table 1). The assessment of durian farmers and government officers' attitude in Chanthaburi province toward food safety strategy at a more important level (Table 2). These shows positive impact on the implementation of the farm to table strategy.

Table 1 Durian Farmer's Knowledge toward Food Safety Strategy (GAP / standard farm)

| Farmer's Knowledge | n | Mean(Percent) | Standard Deviation |
|----------------------|-----|---------------|--------------------|
| Chanthaburi Province | 263 | 79.32 | 0.11 |

Table 2 Durian Farmer and Government Officer's Attitude toward Food Safety Strategy

| | n | Mean | Standard Deviation | Important Level |
|---|-----|------|--------------------|-----------------|
| Durian Farmer | | | | |
| Chanthaburi Province | 263 | 4.04 | 0.40 | More |
| Government Officer | | | | |
| Office of Agriculture Research and Development Region 5 | 24 | 4.09 | 0.42 | More |

The evaluation of durian exporter characteristics found that 62.5 and 37.5 percent of durian exporter companies are of Thai ownership and Thai with foreign ownership respectively (Table 3). Additionally, Table 4 shows that an average number of durian exporter's employee is 94.5. Average export experience of the companies is 11.75 years. All durian exporters had quality control departments (Table 5). They had high ability to comply with the importer food safety standards because of export experience and types of quality assurance certificate obtained by durian exporters (Table 6).

Table 3 Durian Exporter Ownership

| | n | Percentage |
|-------------------|----|------------|
| Thai | 10 | 62.5 |
| Thai with foreign | 6 | 37.5 |

Table 4 Durian Exporter Characteristic

| | n | Mean | Standard Deviation |
|--------------------------|----|-------|--------------------|
| A number of employees | 16 | 94.5 | 152.25 |
| Export Experience(years) | 16 | 11.75 | 7.28 |

Table 5 Quality Control Department and Number of Employees in the Quality Control Department

| Quality Control Department(QCD) | | Number of Employee in QCD/ Total Employee | | | |
|---------------------------------|----------|---|--------------------|---------|---------|
| Yes | No | Mean | Standard Deviation | Maximum | Minimum |
| 13(81.2%) | 3(18.8%) | 17.88 | 35.17 | 133.33 | 0.00 |

Table 6 Type of Quality Assurance Certificate Obtained by Durian Exporter

| Certificate | Frequency(Percent) |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| Q GAP | 42 (52.5) |
| Q PACKING HOUSE | 2 (12.5) |
| Q FOOD SAFETY | 2 (12.5) |
| EUREPGAP | 1 (6.3) |
| GMP | 3 (18.8) |
| HALAL | 1 (6.3) |
| | 0 (0.0) |

Conclusions

By evaluation using CIPP Model, we found that the Department of Agriculture has already practiced the food safety standard since 1974. The policy of the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives under the farm to table strategy plan has also supported their work to make it more efficient and effective. Additionally, the Department of Agriculture has to prepare sufficient resources by increasing staff, instruments, and cars to inspect, monitor, and evaluate farm standards. The National Bureau of Agricultural Commodity and Food Standards has to increase the role of private sector by supporting private sector to get certification body for food safety standard. Finally, the efficiency and effectiveness of the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperative's food safety strategy implementation in the future should consider risk assessment, risk management, and risk communication. These will support Thailand to be "The Kitchen of the World".

Acknowledgements

First, we would like to thank the National Bureau of Agricultural Commodity and Food Standards (ACFS) for research fund. Additionally, we appreciate government officers of the Department of Agriculture for providing information. Finally, we thank for durian farmers, government officers and durian exporters who responded to our questionnaire.

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Bankruptcy Prediction of Industry-Specific Businesses Using Logistic Regression

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Abstract

This paper compares the accuracy of Business Failure Prediction (BFP) for Australian companies by conducting binary logistic regression analysis on companies that haven't been allocated to an industry and the same companies categorized under each industry they subscribe to. An analysis of financial ratios for the Australian marketplace using various variables for an experiment data that includes hundreds of existing and bankrupt businesses across five sectors over a 12 month period from 2013-2014 is presented in the paper. There are many gains from the study, including the potential to aid the economy as a whole so as not to fall into a recession or slump as a result of increased business failure. The BFP model in this paper acquires the prospective to momentarily aid various parties in the economy – from shareholders to government agencies; thus leading to the improvement of the economy in general. There is adequate evidence to prove that bankruptcy in companies can be more accurately predicted by allocating companies to their respective industry, as opposed to a “*one model fits all*” approach which has been used commonly throughout many of the literature.

Keywords: bankruptcy prediction; business failure; financial distress; insolvency; logistic regression; variable analysis; industry-specific

Introduction

Business Failure Prediction (BFP) is based on constructing statistical models that endeavour to predict the financial success or failure of a firm based on publicly available information, such as financial ratios extracted from financial statements (Gepp & Kumar, 2012). Such models can deliver early warning signals of potential distress which could aid both the management and investors to take preventive actions, thus reducing the chance of incurring losses (Jaikengit, 2004). These models can then be used by various institutions, including governments and lenders, to help in decisions relating to the business at hand. For that reason, the accuracy of the business failure prediction models has become an increasingly significant issue in statistics, finance, and other business areas (Cybinski, 2001).

The empirical data for the study were wholly extracted from the official portal of *Morningstar*. Morningstar provides data on over 456,000 investment offerings, including stocks and mutual funds, as well as providing real-time global market data on almost 10 million equities, futures, indexes, commodities, options, and precious metals, in addition to foreign exchange and treasury markets. Morningstar has around \$164 billion in assets under advisement and management as of the 30th of June, 2013. The data from Morningstar has been extensively used in prior researches across different fields (MorningStar, 2015)

The scope of the study concentrates solely on the Australian marketplace. Australia was chosen because: according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 44 businesses close their doors every day (Cornish & Landy, 2013). Such a high statistic is troubling for the Australian economy. This presents an area that needs to be addressed. If fixed, it has the potential to greatly benefit the Australian economy. The attention will be on identifying whether financial distress – leading to bankruptcy – of businesses in Australia can be more accurately predicted using models that segregate the economy based on industry-specificity, i.e. companies serving under a specific industry will be subject to a tailored industry-specific model, as opposed to a ‘*one model fits all*’ approach.

The study includes the following research objective: To be able to ascertain whether bankruptcy prediction of businesses can be more accurately calculated by segregating the economy based on industry-specificity.

Previous BFP models tested their hypotheses by using a specific set of variables across various sectors in the economy – such as Altman's Z-score model (Kumar & Gepp, 2010). This paper attempts to challenge that by using numerous variables and applying them to companies that are placed in industry-specific models vis-à-vis industry-wide models to check which yields more accurate results. According to Kumar & Gepp (2010), BFP has many advantages, including:

- Governments and watchdog institutions can utilize the models to focus on firms with high bankruptcy probabilities.
- Allowing banks and lenders to assess a business's bankruptcy probability before determining whether a loan is suitable, and if so, how much excess and premium to charge.
- Stakeholders and potential merger companies can assess the likelihood of a firm's failure or success as an indicator of whether there will be sustainable benefits gained.
- Existing and potential stockholders can use the BFP models to gain informed decisions about the company they are investing/wish to invest in for best Return On Investment (ROI) opportunities.

This report work on answering the following question:

- Will classifying companies according to their respective industries increase the 'accuracy' of bankruptcy prediction models? 'Accuracy' here refers to percentage of companies that:
 - Were correctly classified (true positives, negatives)
 - Reducing Type I (false alarm) and Type II (misses) errors, *Type I especially*.

Therefore, the hypothesis of the study is: H_0 : Bankruptcy prediction accuracy is industry-specific

Literature Review

Type I Error refers to misclassifying a failing business as successful, whereas Type II Error refers to misclassifying a successful business as failing. Type I Error is regarded as riskier since it results in a realised financial loss caused by involvement with a company that is doomed to fail. On the other hand, Type II Error merely results in a lost opportunity cost from engaging with a successful business (Kumar & Gepp, 2010).

Beaver's Model

BFP has been widely researched as early as the 1920s; pioneered by FitzPatrick (1932). His studies were expanded upon by Beaver (1966) which led to creating the first modern statistical model, namely: the Univariate Model, which used financial ratios to forecast BFP. Beaver tested this model on 158 businesses, 50% of which were successful and the other 50% bankrupted. He generated a ratio set with the best predictive power, as follows (Kumar & Gepp, 2010):

- Cash flow to total debt
- Net income to total assets
- Total debt to total assets
- Working capital to total assets
- Current ratio
- No credit interval

Beaver's (1966) interpretation of a failed business was based on the following: if the business had gone into bankruptcy, there was an overdrawn bank account, missing out on preferred stock dividends, or a defaulted debt.

*** This paper uses the same interpretation for the term 'bankrupt' in its analyses. ***

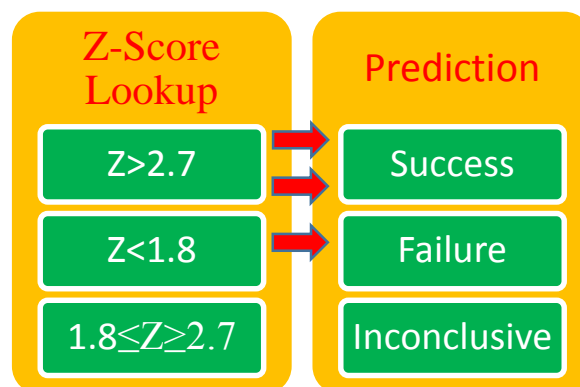
Beaver's model error was around 22% for Type I Error and 5% for Type II Error. However, it had a problem – it was not time-constant, i.e. the margin of error increased as the length of prediction increased – which was problematic for long-term forecasting. Another issue faced by Beaver's model was that various ratios resulted in conflicting predictions – which can lead to diminishing the viability of his model (Kumar & Gepp, 2010).

Altman Z's Model:

After Beaver's univariate analysis, the first multivariate method was applied to BFP, namely: Discriminant Analysis, which was established by Altman (1968). It aimed at tackling one of the main problems encountered by Beaver's models – various ratios resulted in conflicting predictions. Altman devised a single weighted score: (Z) for each company based on a handful of variables, which was calculated in the following equation:

$$Z = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n + c \quad \text{ai and c = estimated parameters, } X_i = \text{independent variables}$$

After that, Altman (1968) formulated a separating function using financial ratios (except for cash flow ratios – as they were found to be insignificant – therefore contrasting with Beaver's model). Based on these results, cut-off scores were then generated to classify the business, as shown in the following diagram:



Altman's model outperformed that of Beaver's; though the time correlation issue persisted, i.e. it was only feasible for short-term failure predictions (Kumar & Gepp, 2010).

Logistic Regression (LR)

Ohlson (1980) conducted his studies in 1980 on the probabilistic prediction of companies' financial distress using Logistic Regression Analysis. Analogous to Altman's Z-score, his O-score may be labelled as a statistical bankruptcy indicator created from a predefined set of ratios from the balance sheet. Ohlson's theory is applied differently from Altman's original model regarding using a much larger sample of business successes and failures to inform the model. Logistic regression involves four steps, namely:

- (1) Calculate a number of financial ratios;
- (2) Fit a logistic regression model and deduce the ratios' coefficients;
- (3) Calculate the result of each coefficient to establish a new variable 'y';
- (4) Calculate the probability of bankruptcy for a company as $1 / (1 + e^{-y})$.

Here, the independent variables with a negative coefficient increase the chance of financial failure due to the fact that they reduce e-y towards zero, which results in the financial bankruptcy (probability

function) approaching 1. Likewise, the independent variables with a positive coefficient decrease the probability of financial bankruptcy (Ohlson, 1980).

Ohlson (1980) is the revolutionary study for applying Logistic Regression Analysis to bankruptcy prediction. He formed three logistic regression models to predict failure for 1, 2, and 3 years in advance. 14 ratios were used as predictors, encompassing standard financial ratios; dummy variables based on comparisons of balance sheet data, and a variable representing the change in net income over the past year. The empirical results for Ohlson's model were not promising; however, he revealed that logistic regression is more statistically valid and easier to explain than its counterpart – discriminant analysis. This was reinforced by later research by Collins & Green (1982) whom compared predicting results by using a logistic model, a discriminant analysis, and a linear probability model. Their results prove that the logistic model performs better. Hall (1994) generated a logistic model with non-financial variables. His model was able to differentiate bankrupt firms from non-bankrupt ones with an astounding accuracy rate of 95 percent. To add, the subsequent studies on logistic regression have proven that it is usually marginally empirically superior to discriminant analysis from both a prediction and classification accuracy perspective (Laitinen & Kankaanpää, 1999).

Decision Trees

Decision Trees (DT) are models that construct a set of tree-based classification rules and create a decision tree. DTs consist of the following (Kumar & Gepp, 2010):

- A root node
- Non-leaf nodes (non-leaf nodes project 2 branches leading to 2 distinct nodes)
- Leaf nodes
- Connecting branches

DTs assign input objects to a group from a predefined set of classification groups. When testing for BFP, DTs assign companies to either the successful or bankrupt group, i.e. they are binary/discrete – zeros and ones. Leaf nodes: which characterize classification groups – as being failed or successful in this case – and non-leaf nodes each contain a splitting rule. Therefore, the tree is built by a recursive process of splitting the data from a higher level of the tree to a lower one. The splitting at each node defines the particulars of the split. The splitting rules have an expression that is evaluated for each company and contrasted to a cut-off value. Decision trees building algorithms perform two main tasks, namely (Kumar & Gepp, 2010):

1. Choosing the best splitting rule at each non-leaf node that distinguishes successful and failing firms.
2. Managing the complexity of the DT.

Artificial Neural Networks (ANN)

Odom and Sharda (1990) used the same financial ratios employed by Altman (1968) and applied Artificial Neural Networks to a sample of operating and bankrupt companies. In their research, three layer feed-forward networks are adopted and the outcome is compared to those of multivariate discriminant analysis. Employing various financial ratios of bankrupt companies to successful ones in the training sample, they tested the effects of different levels on the predictive ability of ANNs and discriminant analysis. Their model correctly identified ALL of the bankrupt and existing companies in the training sample, vis-à-vis 86.8% accuracy by the multivariate discriminant analysis method. As for the performance with holdout samples, ANNs had an accuracy rate of over 77%, whereas discriminant analysis's rate was between the 59% - 70% range. Neural networks were found to be way more accurate in both the training and test results. Following Odom and Sharda's test (1990), an array of studies further examined the use of ANN in business bankruptcy prediction. One example is, Salchenberger, Cinar, & Lash's (1992) study which offered an ANN approach to bankruptcy of loan and saving enterprises. The

outcome found ANNs to be as good as or better than binary logistic regression models. To test the sensitivity of networks to different cut-off values in classification decisions, they compared the results of threshold of 0.5 and 0.2. The information is beneficial when one tests for Type I or Type II error in the bankruptcy prediction arena.

Recursive Partitioning

One definition of recursive partitioning was offered by Breiman (1984); it is a “*statistical method for multivariable analysis*.” Recursive partitioning is a nonparametric regression that developed to reduce or eliminate the restrictive assumptions. It offers a useful alternative to the parametric regression approaches (Zhang & Singer, 2010). *Random Forests* and *K-Nearest Neighbours* are both examples of recursive partitioning techniques.

Random Forest (RF) is an ensemble learning approach for regression and classification that entails creating numerous DTs and then output the class that is the mode of the classes output by individual trees. As part of the RF's structure, its predictors lead to a dissimilarity measure between the observations. One is able to define a RF dissimilarity measure between unlabelled data – the point is to build a RF predictor that differentiates the observed data from suitably created synthetic data (Chandra, Ravi, & Bose, 2009).

RF dissimilarity is advantageous for a number of reasons, including: handling mixed variables effectively, invariance to monotonic transformations of input variables, robustness to outlying observations, and accommodation to different strategies for dealing with missing data. RF effortlessly deals with numerous variables due to its intrinsic variable selection (Chandra, Ravi, & Bose, 2009).

K-Nearest Neighbour (K-NN) is a simple and versatile data mining and machine learning algorithm that is a non-parametric ‘lazy’ learning method designed for regression and classification. In both cases, the input consists of the k closest training examples in the feature space. The output is dependent on whether K-NN is intended for classification or regression (Altman, 1992):

- Regression: the outcome is the property value for the entity. The value is the mean of its k -nearest neighbours' values.
- Classification: the outcome is a class membership. An entity is classified by a majority vote of its neighbours, with the entity being assigned to the class most common amid its k -nearest neighbours.

If $k = 1$, then the entity is assigned to the class of that single nearest neighbour.

Either way, for both cases it is beneficial to weight the contributions of the neighbours, so that the nearer neighbours contribute more to the mean as opposed to the distant ones (Altman, 1992).

Hybrid Models

Hybrid models group various individual statistical techniques in order to maximize their pros, all the while minimizing the collective model's cons. The rationale behind it is that the progresses achieved by certainty and precision – as in the traditional methods (for e.g.: Discriminant Analysis, Logistic Regression, etc...), are not justified by their costs (Ravi Kumar & Ravi, 2007). The hybrid models' technique is quickly becoming more prevalent among practitioners and researchers, and is considered as one of the newest trends in business failure prediction modelling (Demyanyk & Hasan, 2010). There are innumerable possibilities of associations and combinations. Combinations of methods are not exclusively reserved to artificial intelligent statistical techniques – which are usually found complementary (Ravi Kumar & Ravi, 2007). Statistical techniques, operations research, and other techniques found beneficial in predicting bankruptcies in firms can be combined to create the ultimate model. For example, McKee & Lensberg (2002) showcase a hybrid financial diagnosis model merging rough sets and genetic programming. A sample of 291 firms was used from the United States for the time-period 1991 to 1997, and they picked 11 variables to describe the cases. A conclusion was framed

that the hybrid model had an accuracy of approximately 80% on the validation set, whereas the simple rough set performs considerably lower on the same data (67%). Ahn et al. (2000) worked on joining ANN and rough sets for business bankruptcy prediction. Korean data was also used for the time-period between 1994 -1997, and contrasted their results to various standard ANN techniques; the accuracy results exceeded the 80% mark in countless occasions.

Methodology

Hundreds of Australian operating and bankrupt businesses across five different sectors, namely: Energy, Financials, Health, Industrials, and IT, were used as the experiment data-set for a period of 12 months. Such a large sample will increase the credibility of the study by reducing the chance of sampling error and ensuring an unbiased and fair representation of the population.

Six models were constructed, namely: An Energy Sector model (148 companies – 17 variables), Financial Sector model (166 companies– 16 variables), Industrial Sector model (188 companies– 18 variables), Health Sector model (149 companies– 17 variables), IT Sector model (152 companies– 17 variables), and an Industry-Wide model containing all of the aforementioned [803] companies – 15 variables. The variables that were used for each model are tabulated below:

Table 1: Variable Classification Table

| Variables/Sector | ENERGY | FINANCIALS | INDUSTRIALS | HEALTH | IT | INDUSTRY-WIDE |
|-------------------------------------|--------|------------|-------------|--------|----|---------------|
| Total Revenue Excluding Interest | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ |
| EBIT | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ |
| Working Capital | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Retained Earnings | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Total Equity | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Net Profit Margin | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| ROE | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| ROA | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Enterprise Value | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Current Ratio | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Quick Ratio | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cash per Share | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Gross Gearing D/E | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Price/Gross Cash Flow | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Net Gearing | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| PER | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Gross Debt/CF | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| EV/EBITDA | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ |

A dichotomous binary variable – coded 1 if the company is successful and 0 if the company is bankrupted was utilized to refer to the status of each company. A range of variables was used (depending on the sector). Such a large volume of variables will increase the viability of the study. The variables were chosen as per obtainability of data, random choosing of variables, and post-test p-value level of significance ($\alpha < 10\%$). Thus, you will find that some variables will appear only for a particular sector. The software package ‘IBM SPSS Statistics 22’ was utilized to conduct the experiments across the different models. SPSS has been widely used throughout the literature.

The method that is used in the study is Binary Logistic Regression (LR). The relevant data gathered was inputted into six distinct SPSS spreadsheets – one for the industry-wide model (encompassing all the companies that will later be segregated according to their respective industry), and five spreadsheets for each sector (encompassing the segregated companies as per industry).

Subsequently, the tests were rerun for only the variables that were found to be significant (for p-values $< 10\%$ level of significance). For example: The model for the Energy Sector initially contained 17 independent variables – *as shown in Table 1 above*. The model was then rerun using only the 6 variables that were found to be significant. This process was repeated for all models.

The output from each model was later extracted to Excel spreadsheets for further analysis. The default cut-off point for the outcome was at 50% – as per SPSS ‘Classification Table’, i.e. if below 50% then the company was classified as failed (0), if above then it was classified as successful (1). A detailed comparison analysis was conducted on all six models and the results were tabulated – *refer to Table 2 below*.

Following that, new cut-off points were applied to each model to test whether the default 50% cut-off mark provided the best output, i.e. reducing Type I and II errors, Type I especially. A detailed comparison analysis was conducted on all six models and the results were tabulated – *refer to Table 3 below*.

The cut-off points were chosen based on the output that provided the lowest total percentage error with the lowest Type I error. This means that there are instances cut-off values produce lower combined error percentages than the chosen cut-off values. However, since the emphasis lies more on reducing Type I error, all the while keeping a low combined percentage error, a marginal increase in combined error percentage will be tolerated for the overall goodness of the model. For elaboration purposes an example follows to further elaborate upon the methodology of how the cut-off values were chosen in the models:

The Energy Sector's lowest combined error percentage was found to be 52.02% at the 53% cut-off value for classifying the successful and bankrupt companies. Type I error's percentage was 35.72%, Type II error's percentage was 16.30%. However, if you notice in the illustration below, that wasn't the cut-off value chosen nor was it the combined percentage noted. The chosen cut-off value was at the 63% mark with Type I error's percentage being: 23.21%, Type II error's percentage being: 32.61%. The combined error percentage was 55.82%. Even though the error rate of 55.82% is greater than 52.02%, the Type I error's percentage value was higher for the cut-off value at 53%; therefore it was not picked. For that same reason, the cut-off value of 89% wasn't chosen which yielded a Type I error percentage of 0% and a Type II error percentage of 68.48%. Since, even though Type I error is eliminated, the combined percentage of 68.48% (0+68.48%) is lower than that of the tabulated cut-off value's combined percentage of 55.82%. See illustrations below:

| Energy | |
|------------------|---------------|
| Cut-Off Value | Default (50%) |
| Type I Error | 42.86% |
| Type II Error | 9.78% |
| Combined Error % | 52.64% |

Default SPSS
setting at 50%
Cut-Off value

| Energy | |
|------------------|--------|
| Cut-Off Value | 89% |
| Type I Error | 0.00% |
| Type II Error | 68.48% |
| Combined Error % | 68.48% |

Lowest Type I
Error but high
Combined Error
%

| Energy | |
|------------------|--------|
| Cut-Off Value | 53% |
| Type I Error | 35.72% |
| Type II Error | 16.30% |
| Combined Error % | 52.02% |

Lowest
Combined Error
% but high
Type I Error

| Energy | |
|------------------|--------|
| Cut-Off Value | 63% |
| Type I Error | 23.21% |
| Type II Error | 32.61% |
| Combined Error % | 55.82% |

BEST CHOICE

Best combination of
low Type I Error
AND Combined
Error %

Results & Interpretations

Table 2: Logistic Regression Models Comparison without Cut-Off Values

| | Logistic Regression Models Comparison without Cut-Offs | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | True Negatives (Specificity) | True Positives (Sensitivity) | Type I Error | Type II Error | Positive Predicting Value | Negative Predicting Value | Sum of Errors |
| Industry-Wide | 4.46% | 98.57% | 95.54% | 1.43% | 61.64% | 66.67% | 96.97% |
| Industry-Specific: | | | | | | | |
| Energy Sector | 57.14% | 90.22% | 42.86% | 9.78% | 77.57% | 78.05% | 52.64% |
| Finance Sector | 36.92% | 85.15% | 63.08% | 14.85% | 67.72% | 61.54% | 77.93% |
| Health Sector | 19.23% | 95.88% | 80.77% | 4.12% | 68.89% | 71.43% | 84.89% |
| Industrials Sector | 31.94% | 85.34% | 68.06% | 14.66% | 66.89% | 57.50% | 82.72% |
| IT Sector | 71.01% | 78.31% | 28.99% | 21.69% | 76.47% | 73.13% | 50.68% |

Table 3: Logistic Regression Models Comparison with Cut-Off Values

| | Logistic Regression Models Comparison with New Cut-Offs | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | True Negatives (Specificity) | True Positives (Sensitivity) | Type I Error | Type II Error | Positive Predicting Value | Negative Predicting Value | Sum of Errors |
| Industry-Wide @60% | 68.79% | 45.40% | 31.21% | 54.60% | 69.38% | 44.72% | 85.81% |
| Industry-Specific: | | | | | | | |
| Energy Sector @63% | 76.79% | 67.39% | 23.21% | 32.61% | 82.67% | 58.90% | 55.82% |
| Finance Sector @57% | 66.15% | 70.30% | 33.85% | 29.70% | 76.34% | 58.90% | 63.55% |
| Health Sector @66% | 76.92% | 64.95% | 23.08% | 35.05% | 84% | 54.05% | 58.13% |
| Industrials Sector @60% | 73.61% | 56.03% | 26.39% | 43.97% | 77.38% | 50.96% | 70.36% |
| IT Sector @59% | 82.61% | 63.86% | 17.39% | 36.14% | 81.54% | 65.52% | 53.53% |

Key:

True Positives (Sensitivity): % successful firms correctly predicted by model as such

True Negatives (Specificity): % failed firms correctly predicted by model as such

Type I Error: =100%- Specificity (% actually failed but predicted as successful)*

Type II Error: =100%- Sensitivity (% actually successful but predicted as failed)

Positive Predicting Value: % predicted as successful that are actually successful

Negative Predicting Value: % predicted as failed that are actually failed

Sum of Errors: Type I + Type II Error

***:** of more importance than Type II Error

Table 2 shows the results comparison of the six models using logistic regression without applying the cut-off values for each model. The 'Sum of Errors' column shows the total percentage of companies that were misclassified by the model. As the table shows, the industry-wide combined error rate was 96.97%. None of the models using the industry-specific method have a combined error rate that exceeds that of the industry-wide model. This shows that the models using industry-specific logistic regression are a more accurate choice.

Table 3 shows the results comparison of the six models using logistic regression after applying the cut-off values for each model. Here, a cut-off value was allocated to each model to help reduce the sum of errors – each cut off value is recorded next to the sector. Again, none of the industry-specific models contain a high error percentage when compared with the industry-wide model.

This data shows that industry-specific models are more accurate predictors of enterprise failure.

Interpretations for Logistic Regression

For Industry-Wide Model

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model initially contained 15 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

Only 3 of the independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (Working Capital, Current Ratio, and Quick Ratio). The model was then rerun using the 3 significant variables ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (15, N = 803) = 35.62, p < .003$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful. The model as a whole explained between 43% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 59% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified 61.8% of cases.

For the Industry-Specific Models

For Energy Sector

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model initially contained 17 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

Six independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (Total Revenue Excluding Interest, EBIT, Total Equity, ROE, Enterprise Value, and Cash per Share). The model was then rerun using the 6 significant variables ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (17, N = 148) = 53.33, p < .001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful. The model as a whole explained between 30.3% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 41.2% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified of cases 77.7%.

For Finance Sector

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model initially contained 16 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

Three independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (ROA, EV/EBITDA, and Current Ratio). The model was then rerun using the 3 significant variables ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (16, N = 166) = 30.86, p < .02$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful. The model as a whole explained between 17% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 23% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified of cases 66.3%.

For Health Sector

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model contained 17 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

Two independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (EBIT and Quick Ratio). The model was then rerun using the 2 significant variables ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (16, N = 166) = 30.86, p < .01$, indicating that the

The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (17, N = 149) = 22.8, p < .05$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful. The model as a whole explained between 14.2% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 19.6% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified of cases 69.8%.

For Industrials Sector

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model contained 18 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

One independent variable made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (Current Ratio). The model was then rerun using the lone significant variable ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (18, N = 188) = 21.07, p < .02$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful. The model as a whole explained between 10.3% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 14% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified of cases 66%.

For IT Sector

Direct logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of a number of factors on the likelihood that a company will be classified as successful or failed. The model contained 17 independent variables – *refer to Methodology section for list of variables*. α was chosen to be 10%.

Six independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (Total Equity, ROE, Enterprise Value, Gross Gearing/DE, PER, and Gross Debt/CF). The model was then rerun using the 6 significant variable ($p < 10\%$). The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, $\chi^2 (17, N = 152) = 48.48, p < .001$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish between companies that are listed as failed or successful.

The model as a whole explained between 27.3% (Cox and Snell R Square) and 36.5% (Nagelkerke R Squared) of the variance in company status, and correctly classified of cases 75%.

Conclusion

To sum up, this paper presented a real-world problem of business failures that needs to be addressed, showed that BFP can act as a tool to address the issue, examined past BFP models that have been utilized and presented their pros and cons, conducted logistic regression testing on a large data sample, and presented a method to deal with the problem at hand – segregating the economy through subscribing companies to their respective industries. As shown, this will lead to an increase in the accuracy of bankruptcy prediction vis-à-vis traditional industry-wide methods. The BFP model in this paper acquires the prospective to momentarily aid various parties in the economy – from shareholders to government agencies; thus leading to the improvement of the economy in general. There is adequate evidence to prove that bankruptcy in companies can be more accurately predicted by allocating companies to their respective industry, as opposed to a “*one model fits all*” approach which has been used commonly throughout many of the literature.

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Foreign Trade Relations between Turkey and North African Countries: The Contribution of this Relationship to the Economic Development

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to give an overview on the foreign trade relationship between Turkey and North Africa and to reveal the contribution of this relationship on the economic growth of Turkey. The paper starts by explaining Turkey's opening policy to Africa in order to give a general view of the relations that exist between Turkey and the countries of North Africa in particular and those of the African continent in general. Analyses that have been undertaken in this article showed that the trade balance between Turkey and North Africa is in Turkey's favor. This surplus of Turkey in this relationship contributes to its policy concerning an export-led economic growth strategy. North Africa is one of the important destinations for Turkish exports and consequently as an important market for its investments. We can conclude that Turkey must reinforce its relations with North African countries in order to increase its exports and thus to contribute to prompt economic growth.

Keywords: Foreign Trade, North Africa, economic development

1. Introduction

There has been a cultural and economic relationship between North African countries and Turkey since the Ottoman Empire period. This relationship continues to exist between Turkish Republic and North Africa (which is composed by Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia). Turkey's opening policy to Africa adopted with the Action Plan of 1998 and Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit of Istanbul reinforced this relationship by increasing economic partnerships.

Turkey is a country located between Europe and Asia. It has a very strategic location in the region. With its diversified population, Turkey is a member of the UN, OIC, OECD, NATO, OSCE, and the G-20. Turkey's growing economy and diplomatic initiatives have led to its recognition as a regional power in Middle East and North Africa. All the countries of North Africa are major trading partners of Turkey. Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia are all members of the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) which involves a trade agreement aiming for an economic and future political unity among Arab countries of the North Africa. Turkey's trade relations with North African countries as Libya, Tunisia and Egypt are improving after a period of stagnation due to the Arab Spring.

According to the geopolitical definition given by the United Nations, Northern Africa includes eight countries or territories; Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mali, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia and Western Sahara (disputed). While Egypt and Sudan comprise the Nile Valley; Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Libya and often Mauritania and Western Sahara constitute the Maghreb. But in this paper we will consider the five countries which are members of Arab Maghreb Union as North Africa, due to the less signification of trade value with the other countries. The Arab Spring aroused historic economic and political expectations among populations in the Maghrebian countries, and Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia continue facing tough economic times.

In this paper we will start by making a brief introduction to Turkey's opening policy towards Africa. In the second part of this study, we will give exhaustive report on trade relations between Turkey and the North African countries. The third part provides information on the contributions of these relationships on economic growth in North Africa. Finally, a general conclusion about commercial relations between North Africa and Turkey and their contributions is given at the end of this paper.

2. Turkey's Opening Policy To Africa

Let's look at Turkey's historical relations with Africa in order to understand Turkey-Africa contemporary economic relations. Due to historical developments, in Turkey the geo-economics things about Africa is that Africa is divided into two distinct regions namely North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa. While Sub-Saharan Africa is seen as a distant geographical economic region associated with poverty, hunger, epidemics and civil war, North Africa is seen as a traditional economic partner of Turkey because of its historical link with the Ottoman Empire. Strong economic relations exist (Enwere and Yilmaz, 2014: 221-223).

We can divide Turkey's relations with Africa into three periods. The first period concerns the Ottoman Empire's relations with Africa until the establishment of Turkish Republic in 1923, during which Ottomans had considerable ties with Africa. The second period is 1923-1998, when Turkey-Africa relations were at their lowest level. Since 1998, with the acceptance of Africa Action Plan, there has been a gradual revival in Turkey's interest in Africa, reaching a peak after 2005 (Özkan, 2010: 530).

According to the Turkish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Turkey's opening policy to Africa started from the Action Plan adopted in 1998. In 2003 and 2005 important progress was observed in "Turkey's opening policy to Africa". In 2003 a strategy on the Development of the Economic Relations with African Countries was prepared and in the same optic "2005" was declared as a "Year of Africa" by the Turkish Government and African Union accorded observer status to Turkey in the same year. In 2008, the African Union, at its 10th Summit, declared Turkey as a strategic partner of the continent. Furthermore, the "Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit" was held with the participation of 49 African countries on 18-21 August 2008, in Istanbul. The Summit initiated a steadily growing and sustainable cooperation process. Within the framework of this issue, the "Second Turkey-Africa Partnership Summit" was held in 19-21 November 2014 in Malabo (Equatorial Guinea) (RTMFA⁸, 2015).

The result has been progress in "Turkey's opening policy to Africa", Turkish Airlines has started to connect the continent to the world with a total number of flights over 40 destinations in 28 countries. Bilateral trade volume with all Africa has reached 23.4 billion USD in 2014 (About 8.4 billion USD with Sub-Saharan Africa). Comparing the figures of 2000 (which was about 750 million USD) and those in 2014, we can see a more than tenfold increase. Turkish contractors are amongst the major undertakers in the continent. According to the report of RTMFA, the share of African countries in the overall international business volume of Turkish contractors is around 19 percent. Turkish contractors have undertaken projects in the amount of 39 billion \$ in Africa between 1972 and 2013. Total Turkish investment in Africa is estimated at around 5 billion \$ (3.2 billion USD in Ethiopia, 500 million USD in South Africa, 160 million USD in Sudan and 60 million in Nigeria). In 2013, Turkey disbursed 3.3 billion USD as Official Development Assistance (ODA), which corresponds to 0.42 % of its gross national income (GNI). This amount represents an almost 30 % increase in Turkish ODA compared to 2012 (about 783 million USD as its share in Africa in 2013) (RTMFA, 2015).

3. Trade Relations Between North Africa And Turkey

As we stated in the introduction of this paper, an old political and economic relationship between Turkey and North African countries (that is Algeria, Egypt Libya, Morocco and Tunisia) has existed since the period of the Ottoman Empire. Since the advent of the Turkish republic, these relations have been strengthened especially concerning trade. The five main export partners of Turkey in Africa are

RTMFA: Republic of Turkey Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and South Africa in 2006 whereas the main import partners of Turkey in Africa are Libya, Algeria, South Africa, Egypt and Nigeria.

Regarding trade relationship between North African countries and Turkey, export of Turkey to Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia, for period 2006-2014 are giving in Table 1.

Table 1: Exports of Turkey to North African Countries (In Million \$)

| | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 |
|--|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Algeria | 1020,7 | 1231,72 | 1613,64 | 1777,2 | 1504,6 | 1470,55 | 1813,04 | 2002,7 | 2078,9 |
| Egypt | 709,35 | 902,7 | 1426,45 | 2599,03 | 2250,58 | 2759,31 | 3679,19 | 3200,36 | 3297,86 |
| Libya | 489,26 | 643,15 | 1074,29 | 1795,12 | 1932,37 | 747,63 | 2139,44 | 2753,1 | 2059,9 |
| Morocco | 551,38 | 721,6 | 957,77 | 598,54 | 623,96 | 920,9 | 1014,91 | 1192,9 | 1406,57 |
| Tunisia | 324,89 | 530,28 | 778,1 | 645,77 | 713,63 | 802,3 | 796,74 | 892,16 | 915,04 |
| Total Exports to North Africa | 3 096 | 4 029 | 5 850 | 7 416 | 7 025 | 6 701 | 9 443 | 10 041 | 9 758 |
| % of Total Exports of Turkey¹⁰ | 3,62 | 3,76 | 4,43 | 7,26 | 6,17 | 4,97 | 6,19 | 6,61 | 6,19 |

Source: TUIK (2015), Foreign Trade by group of country

According to Table 1, until 2008, Turkey exported more to Algeria than in any country. From 2009 to 2014, the principal destination of Turkish exportations is Egypt (with 3.3 billion \$, in 2014), then Libya, Algeria and Tunisia. But Turkish exportation to Libya suddenly decreased in 2011 due to Arab Spring. And the share of Turkish exports to North Africa in the total export of Turkey also decreased from 6.17% in 2010 to 4.97% in 2011. The total exports of Turkey to these five countries reached 10 billion US dollar in 2013.

Let check the imports of Turkey from these five (5) countries. Data about Turkish imports from Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia are provided in Table-2.

Table 2: Imports of Turkey From North African Countries (In Million \$)

| | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 |
|--|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| Algeria | 718.74 | 943.81 | 1587.5 | 768.99 | 1068.38 | 1150.325 | 924.93 | 714.09 | 920.99 |
| Egypt | 392.52 | 652.99 | 886.24 | 641.55 | 926.48 | 1382.22 | 1342.05 | 1628.87 | 1434.47 |
| Libya | 241.43 | 260.39 | 336.33 | 357.42 | 425.65 | 139.76 | 416.15 | 303.96 | 243.76 |
| Morocco | 173.9 | 198.46 | 360.52 | 234.73 | 396.8 | 419.95 | 429.48 | 572.21 | 639.85 |
| Tunisia | 150.09 | 229.79 | 365.38 | 234.98 | 280.72 | 249.79 | 195.62 | 289.27 | 196.7 |
| Total Imports from North Africa | 1676.7 | 2285.43 | 3535.97 | 2237.67 | 3098.03 | 3342.04 | 3308.24 | 3508.39 | 3435.76 |
| % of Total Imports of Turkey | 1.20 | 1.34 | 1.75 | 1.59 | 1.67 | 1.39 | 1.40 | 1.39 | 1.42 |

Source: TUIK (2015), Foreign Trade by group of country

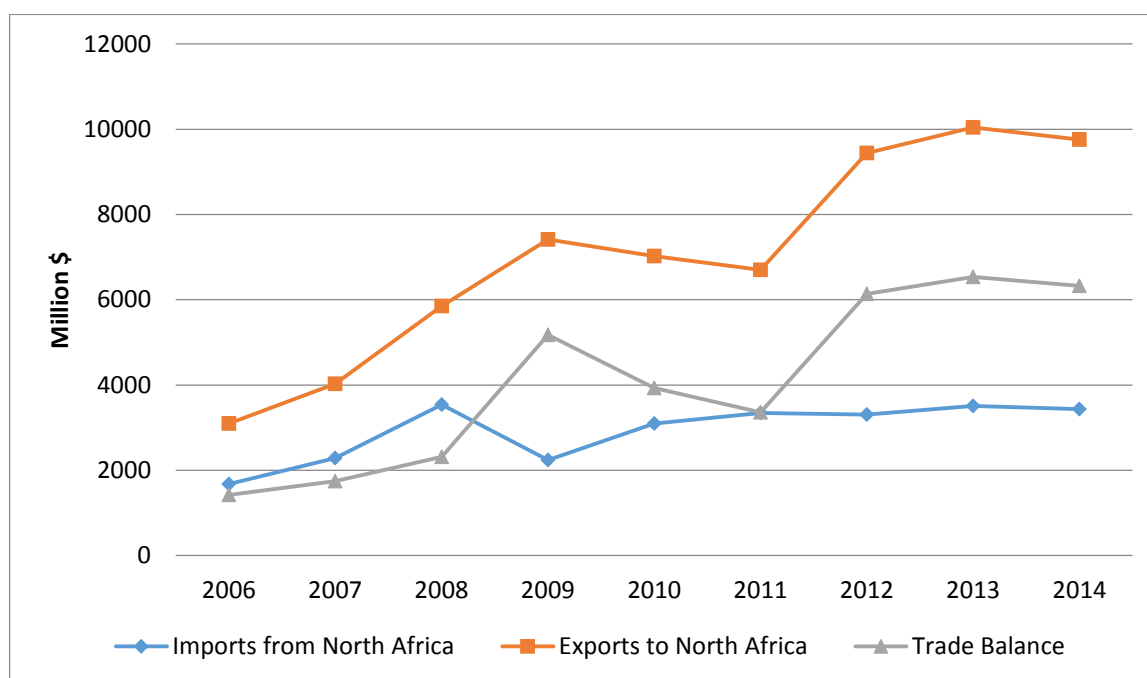
As seen in Table 2, the principal supplier of Turkey for the period 2006-2010 is Algeria. But from 2011 to 2014, the principal supplier of Turkey was Egypt (with 1.4 billion \$ in 2014). The average total Turkish imports from North African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia) for the period 2006-2014 were around 2,9 billion \$, and the share of Turkish imports from these countries in the total imports of Turkey was around 1,46% in the same period. During the Arab Spring, there were

The virgules (,) are decimal separator.

The share of Turkish exports to North African Countries in the total export of Turkey.

decreases only in importations from Libya and Tunisia. Since 2011, while imports from Libya, Tunisia and (moderately) Algeria were decreasing, imports from Egypt and Morocco were increasing.

Graph-1 shows data about Turkish imports from North African countries, Turkish exports to these five (4) countries and trade balance of Turkey with North African countries.



Graph 1: Turkish Imports, Exports and Trade Balance with North Africa for period 2006-2014

Source: TUIK (2015), Foreign Trade by group of country

According to Graph 1, Turkey exports more than it imports from North African countries and the trade balance is in favor of Turkey. The trade balance indicates that Turkey increased its exportations after 2011 as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs declared in the report about opening policy to Africa. Turkey decided to maintain the level of its imports from these five countries. In addition, almost 90% of products that Turkey imports from these countries are energy sources.

Approximately 97% of Algeria's exports to Turkey are composed of energy sources including crude oil, Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG), Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), and natural gas. The exports of Turkey are composed of land transportation vehicles and equipment, iron and steel products, machine parts, textile and confection products, unknotted clothing products, electrical machine hardware, cement, flammable gas, television and communication devices, soap, non-iron materials, grain and grain products, fruit and vegetables, carton paper, plastic products and margarine (RTMFA, 2011d). The main items of Turkish exports to Libya are industrial products (machinery, transportation, tools, textile and apparel, semi-finished products, iron and steel, chemicals, other consumer goods, etc.) and foodstuffs. Petroleum and petroleum-based products make approximately 100% of Turkish imports from Libya (RTMFA, 2011f). There is steady progress in Turkish-Moroccan economic relations. The total amount of Turkish investments in Morocco is around 240 million USD. In recent years, the share of Turkish firms in the construction and infrastructure projects realized in Morocco has been around 1.4 billion USD. Turkey was the 12th export and 10th import partner of Morocco in 2000s (RTMFA, 2011c). The major items that Turkey exports to Egypt are: automobiles, steel products and minerals. The main import items are rice, different kinds of coal, copper wires, petroleum and other hydrocarbons and chemical fertilizers (RTMFA, 2011e). Turkey and Tunisia signed a free trade agreement on September 2004, aiming to increase trade between the two countries, which currently stands at USD 300 million (Nazli, 2005).

4. Contribution Of Trade Relations Between North Africa And Turkey

Now we examine the contribution of trade relationship between these 5 North African countries and Turkey on Turkish economic growth. In this part we will use general information, and trade and economic growth data of Turkey to view the contribution of this relationship on economic growth.

The increased normalization of bilateral relations of Turkey with most of the Middle East and North African countries in the recent years and its national economic imperative of finding new unsaturated markets for the products of the export-oriented Turkish economy (which should sustain the high rates of Turkey's economic growth) has been led by an impressive trade and production diversification of Turkey's economy. The performance of the Turkish economy has facilitated the creation and consolidation of a type of Turkish company that has acquired knowledge, technology, funding and vision to compete successfully at the international level. Turkish multinationals are expanding aggressively in some key sectors in these two economic regions (Middle East and North Africa) (Albarracín, 2013:65-66).

According to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Algeria is an especially important trade partner of Turkey in North Africa. With half of her external food demand extended to Turkey, Algeria became an important market in recent years and provides attractive business opportunities for Turkish companies in the food sector (RTMFA, 2011d). Turkish firms that operate in mining, construction, agriculture, manufacturing and service sectors in Libya invested about 60 million dollars in 2009 (RTMFA, 2011f). The total investments of Turkey in Morocco are around 240 million USD. In recent years, the share of Turkish firms in the construction and infrastructure projects materialized in Morocco has been around 1.4 billion USD (RTMFA, 2011c). In Egypt, Turkish investments increased to 1.5 billion dollars from 60 million dollars five years before. Investment relations between the two countries develop steadily and affect volume of trade positively. There is an increase in the Turkish investments in Egypt especially in the textile and confection sectors. Most Turkish companies prefer the capital Cairo and its environs as well as port cities like Alexandria and Borg Al-Ara (RTMFA, 2011e).

Graph 2 shows the share of Turkish exports to North Africa in the total exports, the annual growth (%) of exports of goods and services, share of exports in GDP of Turkey, and GDP Growth Rate of Turkey. We are using exports data, because of the fact that Turkey is applying an export-led growth strategy. Even if there are deficits in the trade balance of Turkey, exportations have an important role in the growing of Turkish economy. And as we stated above, the trade balance of Turkey toward North Africa is favorable to Turkey.



Graph 2: The share of Turkish exports to North Africa in the total exports, the annual growth (%) of exports of goods and services, share of exports in GDP of Turkey, and GDP Growth Rate of Turkey.

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators and TÜİK

In Graph 2, it can be seen that exports and economic growth follow the same growth behavior. It can also be noted that, while the share of Turkish exports in GDP is increasing from 23.98% in 2011 to 25.65% in 2013, the share of Turkish exports to North Africa in the total Turkish exports also increases from 4.97% in 2011 to 6.61% in 2013. This situation shows that North Africa is a very important market for its policy toward economic growth (especially in 2014).

5. Conclusion

Since the Ottoman Empire, Turkey which is today a regional power in the Middle East and North Africa, has had long political and economic relationships with North Africa. This relationship is reinforced during the period of the Republic especially in the context of the policy of openness to Africa. In North Africa, the main trade partner countries of Turkey are: Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia. Even if Turkish exportations to Libya and Algeria decreased due to the Arab Spring of 2011, its exportations have had a positive effect on the volume of trade. The countries of North Africa (especially Algeria and Egypt which are the principal suppliers of Turkey in this period) have continued to supply Turkey. While Turkish total exports to North Africa, reached 10 billion \$ in 2013, the importations to these five North African countries was only about 3.5 billion \$, and the Turkish trade balance in North Africa is in favor of Turkey. The favoring of Turkey in this relationship, contributes to its policy concerning export-led economic growth strategy. North Africa is one of the important destinations for Turkish exports and consequently an important market for its investments. We can conclude that Turkey must reinforce its relations with North African countries in order to increase its exports, thus to contribute to the prompt economic growth.

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The Impact of Particularisation and Generalisation on Political Communications in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament

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The WCPP is the only South African Parliament that is governed by the Democratic Alliance. This party serves as the Official Opposition in the National Parliament of South Africa.

Introduction

The socio-political culture in South Africa is one that is heavily invested in generalisations. It is largely attributable to the heterogeneity of the South African population. South Africans have, since the birth of their new democracy, been occupied with the nation-building enterprise, which has been done under the banner of the 'rainbow nation.' The *rainbow nation* can be said to be the effort to 're-socialise' South Africans by transforming their ideas about heterogeneity and diversity (Balaam & Dillman 2014:138). It is an attempt by the post-Apartheid South African government, and the people who elected it, to unify a people that have been deeply divided along racial lines, which are resultant of the colonial history as well as the legacy of Apartheid.

Greater inclusivity (or broadness) comes at the expense of specificity, in that the specification of one is at the expense of that of the other, which is not mentioned or considered (Barker, 2012). In other words, if we are specific and detailed about certain phenomena in South African political culture, it means that other phenomena are neglected or excluded. Being that the South Africa of today exists in spite of the aforementioned history of exclusion, the project of the rainbow nation was set about in an effort to span inclusivity as widely as possible.

This paper will consider the impact that generalisation, as a practice, has on the outcome of political communication done by the majority party in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament, the Democratic Alliance.

The Framework

A consideration of what is meant by 'generalisation' and 'particularisation' as processes and as products provides the theoretical framework for this discussion. It affords the terms within which case study, which is drawn from the DA in the WCPP, may be analysed. The theoretical framework for this discussion also has normative implications for how political communications in the WCPP *ought* to be executed in that particularisation, as a process, implies an ethic of professionalism, which is undermined where generalisation, as a process, is implemented instead. Another critical contextualisation for this discussion is that of the narrow-cast consideration of the political landscape within which the DA in the WCPP operates. It is a unique environment in which the non-executive members are ordinarily squeezed out of the media coverage, in favour of the executive members who make up cabinet, and, the opposition parties. The objective of this consideration is to determine the link between an increased share in media coverage due to a particularised approach to the communication that is released by the DA in the WCPP, further drawing parallels between the low volumes due to ineffective communication where a generalised approach has been taken.

This paper, again, takes a largely normative approach to understanding the political communications operation of the WCPP. An analysis of the media coverage generated by pieces of communication will inform the determination of the efficacy of the pieces of communication in question. This will rely on

the examining of data that has been produced by monitoring the coverage generated by the pieces of communication that make up the case study, should any such data be available. The data sets will be analysed in terms of its efficacy in terms of the quality and quantity of the coverage generated. The two samplings in the case study are instances of (a) a generalised approach and (b) a particularised approach being taken to the formulation of the pieces of communication in question. The thesis is thus to determine whether the implementation of a particularised approach rather than a generalised approach to the execution of the political communications by the DA in the WCPP results in improved media coverage. The case study will comprise two press releases that were drafted and released on behalf of one of the DA Western Cape (WC) Spokespersons whose portfolio ordinarily generates comparatively low coverage in relation to other portfolios. Examining of the pieces of communication in question is an attempt at determining whether there is any validity in the supposition that a particularised approach, amid a culture (practice) of generalisation, is what marks the difference between an effective or ineffective political communications operation.

While this discussion is undertaken at the risk of being exclusionary in its emphasis and by extension, assigning a seemingly inherent priority to a particularised approach to political communications, it is also undertaken at the risk grand theorising, which is precisely what is suggested as being the cause for the low levels of coverage generated. Both of these *risks* are somewhat unavoidable. What can be said in the face of these risks is that the context of the WCPP is unique. Within that uniqueness lies a niche opportunity for this discussion to be had in the first place.

As such, while there is certainly value to be drawn from this discussion, this paper does not pose to be a grand and permanent solution, which can be taken as being a universal mechanism for political communications. It is rather a contemplation of a political contextualised layering, in the first place, which adds complexity and depth to the understanding of the execution of political communications as done by the Media Office of the Western Cape Provincial Parliament - and in the second place, this understanding will surely change should there be any change in the context. Lastly, an appeal must be made to the reader of this text, to engage with this product in a way that is critical and cynical. What is said here must be questioned and second guessed so that it may yield meaning and distil understanding.

Generalisation and particularisation

To generalise is to employ previous knowledge and adapt it to a current context, it is the building of grand knowledge which is to be applied in specific and relevant cases (D'Eredita & Ferro 2015: 246). Without this tandem relationship between the general and particular, it is hard to imagine quite how any learning and application would occur. The processes of generalisation and particularisation may be restated as the processes of idealisation and materialisation (Font & Contreras 2008). The difficulty arises when generalisation, as a process, renders a seemingly unchallengeable product and inalienable product. In other words, that which has been generalised become objectified and idealised and begins to take the appearance of being a thing in and of itself, when the abstraction begins to act as a universal. Generalisation, or abstraction, as a process seeks out regularities while generalisation as a product is the lingering on the generalisations made (Rivera 2015: 170). It is the predictive and inferential reasoning despite the initial constraint of having only an incomplete knowledge of the target objects for generalisation (Rivera 2015:166), while particularisation is the paying attention to parts or instances (Rivera 2015: 167).

While it is virtuous insofar as it enables the attainment of and application of knowledge, it cannot come at the expense of the particular. Particularisation is the consideration of a case. Beyond that, it is also the extent to which that which informs the case is considered. The detail or the parts. Granted, over time, these cases are theorised in that our experiences allow for the acquiring of knowledge, which we then use to premise future deductions. Firstly, to be particular requires the commitment to the case and as such, it secondly requires that the case be considered on its own merits rather than as an extension or necessary instantiation of an idealised knowledge.

It is important to identify that generalisation and particularisation are not binary opposites, with one being inherently better or worse than the other. The question here is rather a matter of what either of these phenomena means in a specific context – in this case, the efficacy of the political communication as released by the Democratic Alliance in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament. In other words, this discussion is concerned with the virtue of either.

The South African Context: Generalisation as a process and as a product

A brief contextualisation of the South African political landscape that gave rise to the value of and the consequence of the rainbow nation – generalisation as a process

The spirit of generalisation:

In a vein that is similar to the qualification provided in the introductory note of this discussion, the project of the *rainbow nation* is not the only contributing factor to the culture of generalisation and must not be seen as such in that it is the one that is discussed here. Other phenomena such as the centralisation of government, which might be also be labelled as the *de-localisation* or the *de-contextualisation* of government; can also be argued as adding significantly to the culture of generalisation. To identify the onset of the pursuit of the ideal of the *rainbow nation* as a point of origin of the culture of generalisation is to be exclusive and an act in reductionism (Barker, 2012).

That South Africa has eleven official languages is but one indicator of the heterogeneity that marks the South African population. It is also proof that the reductionist approach that is used in racial classification also serves to neglect particulars in the South African political culture, as the speakers of the more than eleven languages would fall into only four key race groups. A brief look at South Africa's discourse will readily reveal just how often the concept of 'diversity' is employed in South African political discourse and it is used to reinforce the idea of the *rainbow nation*, the banner under which the new South African enterprise of nation building would occur.

This enterprise was set about to counter the historical implications of the Apartheid regime, which was based on the principle of racialized segregation, the first democratically elected government of South Africa (the African National Congress) sought to bridge divides between race groups. A very necessary effort indeed, following the divisive tactics employed by the Apartheid regime to keep the non-whites separate from whites and to further keep the non-whites from unifying. Yet, despite intense mistrust between race-groups during the transition to democracy and although there were pockets of and ad hoc surges of violence, South Africa managed to narrowly avoid civil war and have its very first democratic election in April of 1994.

The peace that marked South Africa's first democratic election needed to be maintained so as to forge ahead and 'build' a stable political culture. The value of institutionalising political stability is indubitable as far as setting up functional state capacity in a new democracy is concerned. As such, the sentiment of unity in diversity was an attempt by the post-Apartheid ANC government, to unify a people that have been deeply divided by the racial lines. Greater inclusivity comes at the expense of specificity, in that the specification of one is at the expense of the specification of the other that is not mentioned or considered (Barker, 2012). In other words, if we are specific and detailed about one element in South African political culture, the other is neglected or excluded.

The Apartheid regime was one that was dominated by white males and that was beneficial to white South Africans, at the expense of the numerous other groups that came to be classified as non-white. It is often argued, in the fields of political studies and sociology that a homogenous population provides a much simpler vantage point for not only democratization but also the consolidation of democracy that follows it. By extension, this notion can be interpreted as positing that a heterogenous population group makes the democratisation and subsequent consolidation processes more complex and even questionable. Being that this is precisely what the current South African government wanted to avoid, it set about making an effort to span inclusivity as widely as possible. Whether it was effective in achieving

this end is largely questionable and equally a subject that can form the basis of another inquiry altogether.

While the intention was to (a) foster a peaceful and stable political culture by (b) avoiding exclusivity, the 'rainbow nation' comes at the expense of specificity, so as to accommodate cultural pluralism (Heywood, 2007). In the years following the birth of this nation building enterprise, there has been a consistent practice of the broadest possible inclusivity. By extension, the years that followed the genesis of the first democratic regime in South Africa has also meant the consistent practice of non-specificity, and, the abstraction that goes along with it. Much discussion and conceptualisation hovers in the sphere of the abstract in that the drilling down into any detail or any specifics would mean the exclusion of another detail or specification. The South African political culture is decidedly generalised in that it is decidedly broad and inclusive. There is much that is invested in grand theorising and sweeping statements, to the point where it has become a naturalised approach (Barker, 2012), one that seems inalienable to the South African political culture of today and it bears a grave consequence that is two-fold:

1. That there is little requirement for detail has come to mean that there is little will to take a detailed approach, in as far as it is not deemed virtuous or useful.
2. The lack of detail and the subsequent ambiguity has come to mean that there is a lack of specifics by which we hold ourselves, and others, accountable.

As such, South African political discourse – as a marker of political culture – is rife with vagueness that is a result of grand theorising and generalisation. This generalisation is a consequence of the post-Apartheid nation building enterprise. To understand its impact, it is important to consider localised practice, one case of such localised practice in particular, that of the Democratic Alliance (DA) in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament and its political communications operation. Before considering the DA in the WCPP, one must have some understanding the DA in South Africa.

Who is the Democratic Alliance?

The DA a liberal party and it is the official opposition in South Africa, with four million votes it has 22.23% of the electoral support in South Africa. Interestingly, it governs one out of the nine provinces in South Africa, the Western Cape, where it enjoys 57.26% of the electoral support (Independent Electoral Commission, 2015). This places the DA in the position of being in opposition while being in government, simultaneously in that it is the official opposition in National Parliament. While the DA is the official opposition in South Africa, it faces many challenges that threaten to undermine its efforts to make up the 28.77% gap between it and a winning majority. The most obvious of these challenges include that while the DA's predecessor parties did oppose the Apartheid regime, they did so in a way that is typical of a liberal party, from within the existing frameworks, by opposing Apartheid legislation from within parliament (Heywood, 2007). This is often used to level an attack against the DA as being a racist white party, in that although it was in opposition to Apartheid, it was nonetheless operating within the Apartheid regime and thereby complicit to it. This criticism is one that is most damaging to efforts made by the DA to make gains in winning the votership that it needs to make up the 28.77% gap. The DA has largely captured the votes of the minority race groups. This in and of itself is not enough in that the South African population is a majority black population.

The Democratic Alliance in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament: Communications Operation

The Media Office

A non-political staff component:

As with any marketing or communications operation, a political communications operation aims to publicise the party within which it operates in a way that is favourable. As such, it is important that the key messages that embody the party values are publicised through the communication that is released. Where a political communications operation differs from the typical marketing operation is that the exposure or coverage earned. The party values are rather woven into communication released on issues, of public concern and interest, which are likely to pick up traction in the news cycle. In order to achieve this, the communication that is released must be newsworthy (Davis: 2015), in other words, it must reveal something that is 'new.'

In the case of the DA WCPP communications operation, this communication is done primarily by the means of press releases that are sent to journalists who would in turn pick up the issues to which the releases refer and cover it in various print and broadcast platforms, upon deeming it 'newsworthy.'

Newsworthiness is critical in generating effective media coverage. It, along with detailed and evidence based argument, are essential in captivating journalistic interest and building the credibility of the political party that releases it. It is important to mention that newsworthiness and a brief, yet detailed released is often not enough to secure coverage as there may be other events that may dominate the media cycle for a period of time and can consequently squeeze even well researched, simply stated and newsworthy statements out of the news cycle.

The aspect of employing a detailed and evidence based argument forms part of the internal effort of political communications. It hinges on the operational elements such as capacity as well as creativity and commitment among the part of the communicators in question (Davis, 2015). This because it relies on the quality of the input into the communication that the operation produces, as it is this input that largely determines the extent to which it will be covered in the media or how many *hits* it will get.

Advert Value Equivalent (AVE) epitomises the distinction between paid and earned coverage in a rather obvious manner. AVE is a measure of how much a mention or a hit would cost, should it have been paid for as with paid advertising. It is not precise, however, it remains a crucial performance indicator for any political communications operation. The more hits a piece of communication receives, or the more times it is covered, the higher the AVE. Total AVE is further influenced by the reach of the platforms that covered a particular piece communication. In other words, the larger the audience or readership of a particular broadcast, online or print platform, the greater the AVE of the mention on that platform.

There is another important performance indicator that follows from this, which is influenced by more than just the internal input by the operation in question. This is the favourability of the coverage that a piece of communication received. It is subject to interpretation by journalists, editors and audiences, as such it is largely informed by elements beyond or external to a communications operation (Heywood, 2007). While it is not within the direct control of a communications operation, it can nonetheless be influenced by the aforementioned internal input. Here the concern is whether the piece of communication that was released was covered in a way that is in favour of the brand values and subsequent message of the party in question? If so, then it is quite obviously favourable or positive. If not, then it can be considered negative. Where coverage is composite, where it mentions the DA along other parties or entities, with differing *lines* or commentary, it may be classified or *coded* as mixed, it is important to note that more often than not, coverage is indeed composite, yet favourability can be clearly determined by assessing which line -from which party or entity- dominates the story or the headline, in other words one must ask *who won the spin?*

Whether a political communications operation is achieving its end can largely be ascertained by asking the two following questions:

1. *Is the operation fulfilling its objective of generating exposure for the party?*
2. *Is the exposure that is being generated favourable or positive?*

The Democratic Alliance (DA) in the Western Cape Provincial Parliament (WCPP) operates in a context that is unique as it is informed by a number of case specific dynamics. This is a critical point of departure, before any meaningful understanding of the communications operation and by extension, of the quality of the performance by the communications operation can be attained.

The communications operation for the DA in the WCPP is referred to as the 'media office.' Until recently, it has been an underperforming entity, in terms of the first of the two criteria set out above. In other words, the communication that was being released to the media from the media office, was simply not being covered in the media. To blame for the underperformance is (a) the belief that the media simply is not interested in the members on behalf of whom the communication was drafted and released, and, (b) a number of technical and structural shortcomings, in particular, (i) the fact that an efficient tool

for releasing pieces of communication and (ii) for tracking the coverage that these pieces of communication generated, was not being used. Of these two causes for underperformance, (a) was considered primary and (b) was thought to be secondary and of less importance. This assumption resulted in the acceptance on the part of those participating in the media office, that there is nothing that can be done about the low levels of coverage as the lack of media interest is something that exists outside of or external to the realm of direct influence of the media office.

The media and the public were believed to be *inherently* disinterested. The primacy of (a) meant a lack of acknowledgement for the actual impact of (b). In other words; the low levels of media coverage, which is quite obviously a critical indicator of the efficacy of the communication outputs by the media operation, was deemed resultant of an external phenomenon, and this meant that the need for consideration of the technical and structural shortcomings was not recognised, thereby resulting in the chronic neglect of the structural shortcomings which plagued the media office, those again being that neither (i) an efficient tool or mechanism for releasing pieces of communication and (ii) an efficient mechanism or tool for monitoring the coverage that these pieces of communication generated, was not being used. Before discussing (a) - that the media and public are inherently disinterested in the outputs of the media office, a brief consideration for (b) is necessary.

The technical and structural shortcomings of the media office

Briefly, the DA WCPP media office had two major structural deficiencies. Firstly, tools were not being used to release and track the performance of press releases. Secondly, the operation was plagued by a lack of willingness and capacity to seek out topical issues and use them as platforms to deliver a party message that is favourable to the brand of the DA overall. That an efficient tool for tracking and releasing coverage was not being used meant that although little to no coverage was being generated, often that which was being generated would go unnoticed in that only coverage mentioning the DA was being tracked. This meant that, as will be discussed in the following section, where the non-executive members of the WCPP were being covered in their capacity as Chairperson of a particular Standing Committee Chairperson and not in their capacity as the DA Western Cape Spokesperson, that coverage would go untracked.

To better understand the validity of the assumption that the media and the public was inherently disinterested, consideration must be given to the premises that informed it.

The belief that the media and the public are simply not interested

The assumption that the media and the public are inherently disinterested is based on three points, which are as follows:

- i. The DA members of the WCPP are non-executive members. Non-executive members do not wield executive power and as such are seen as being of less importance in the public eye in the public is more interested in the executive members who make up cabinet as these executive members are the ones who implement DA policy and execute government. As such, the media is more interested in covering the cabinet members.
- ii. As DA members of the WCPP, they are spokespersons on various portfolios such as Health and Finance, however, their scope is limited to that which is relevant to the province of the Western Cape. Thus it is the national DA spokespersons who would get more media coverage as they can more easily communicate on matters concerning their portfolios, regardless of provincial jurisdiction. Furthermore, the national spokespersons are in opposition and as such, they generate coverage off the attacks levelled against the national government. In short, the media and the public are more interested in the national DA spokespersons than what they are in the Western Cape DA spokespersons.
- iii. The DA members of the WCPP are, in practice, chairpersons of the Standing (permanent) Committees in the WCPP. These committees oversee the Western Cape Government (WCG) departments and are responsible for holding them to account. However, the DA WCPP media office is a partisan operation, which is funded from the caucus (all of the DA members in the

WCPP) budget whilst the role of Standing Committee Chairperson is parliamentary and non-partisan. As such, due to the principle of the separation between party and state, the DA WCPP media office cannot communicate on behalf the members in their capacity as chairpersons of the parliamentary committees. As such, again, the assumption is that the public would be more interested in coverage about the members in their capacity as committee chairpersons.

It is important to state categorically, that these are indeed valid statements and do have a continued impact on the level of coverage generated by the DA WCPP non-executive members, in their capacity as party spokespersons. What follows these three premises, is the conclusion that the DA WCPP media operation will continue to receive low levels of media coverage due to the aforementioned media and public disinterest. As such, the generalisation that the deduction made here amounts to is one that has normative implications for the political communications operation. As the deduction is naturalised, it begins to masquerade as a universal inalienable truth, a thing that is, in and of itself and cannot be altered (Barker 2012:78). As such, an acceptance that the low levels of coverage are unavoidable, became accepted as the norm among those participating in the media office.

This raises the object of this inquiry: The question that will be considered in this discussion is that of whether the naturalised assumption that there will always be little media coverage can be undone by taking a different approach to the understanding of, as well as the practice of particularisation, on the part of the media office.

Is there is any room for meaningful and consistent improvement on the extent to which media coverage is generated by the DA WCPP media office. If so, can a particularised approach to the communications released by the media office accomplish this improvement?

Generalisation and Particularisation in a political context of the DA WCPP

Generalisation and particularisation are practices that form the political communications done by the Western Cape Provincial Parliament and as such, amounts to being a key determining factor in as far as the quality and quantity of coverage that a piece of communication receives. This is exemplified here as generalisation is the sort of press release, especially, that does meet some of the requirements as aforementioned, but does so in a way that is abstract and without detailed content, argument or evidence provided. In other words, it may refer to a topical issue or something of public interest but without presenting an action step on the part of the member on the behalf of whom the communication is drafted and released. Alternatively, the statement may be loaded with political rhetoric that is to be expected of the non-executive members of the WCPP, who echo statements released by the executive members, offering little more than a repeat with a headline that begins with *"The DA in the Western Cape Welcomes the decision by the Western Cape Government..."*

Particularisation in communication by the WCPP, where it has thus far been employed as a formative process, has meant the meticulous inclusion of detail in the press releases that are not only inalienable in terms of evidence or premises that are in support of the argument or statement that the press release makes but also to do so in a way that is gripping or *sexy* to the media. Over time, this is what forges personal brand recognition for the DA Western Cape Spokespersons and does so in a way that builds credibility. Aside from being gripping and subsequently short (between two and three hundred words), a press release cannot be an aimless allegory, the aspects that a statement covers are as follows;

1. Highlight the problem (issue),
2. Highlight the solution (action to be taken),
3. Expand on the problem,
4. Expand on the solution, and
5. Close (Davis, 2015).

And so it is not only in terms of supporting the argument of the statement through research that is important but also the subsequent distilling of a well-researched piece of communication, into an equally consumable and newsworthy one. The *problem* that a press release addresses is called a *news hook*

(Davis, 2015), it is what 'hooks' public and media interest. What follows is of equal importance as it makes the press release newsworthy, it is the action that the press release. It often proves challenging for the political communications operations to continue to be innovative in terms of action steps. It is nonetheless crucial for securing media coverage. *What is the politician in question going to do about the problem?* In the case of the DA WCPP, the action step (Davis, 2015) often refers to setting the committee agenda, in other words, the DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Education may issue a press release in which the action step reads "in my capacity as the Chairperson of the Standing Committee on Education, I will call *the relevant party* before the committee."

Case Study

To achieve this, a comparative analysis will be done of two pieces of communication that were released during 2015 by one of the non-executive members of the DA WCPP caucus, will be considered. The pieces of communication in question were issued by the DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Cultural Affairs and Sport. One of the two press releases which will be analysed in the case study, represents a generalised approach while the other represents a particularised approach and possesses a clear objective. The pieces of communication in question were released in somewhat differing contexts, each of which impacting on its efficacy, relevance and how well it was covered in light of the criteria set out above – in other words, the quality and quantity of the coverage that it generated. As such, these pieces of communication will each be considered in terms of the media coverage they attained, according to the following criteria:

1. The number of hits (how many times the story was reported) and the subsequent Advert Value Equivalent (how much advertising space with the same audience reach would have cost).
2. Sentiment analysis of the hits obtained (whether it was in favour of the party and whether it contained the party message).

As previously mentioned in light of favourability, much of the coverage that is generated is composite, especially when the coverage follows a sitting of the Western Cape Provincial Parliament. Here, where the executive members and the opposition generally dominate the newspaper articles, to the exclusion of the non-executive members that the DA WCPP media office services, the aim is thus to (a) forge a space in the coverage the WCPP garners as it is, and, (b) extending the reach beyond what is currently attained and eventually 'owning' this new media territory. The case study will be made up of three samplings of WCPP activity, upon which communication was released, these are as follows:

Sample one:

The first instance for consideration is the cases study involving distinct pieces of communication that were released at different instances in 2015, on behalf of the DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Cultural Affairs and Sport.

The first example is a press release that was released on 23 February 2015. It is a congratulatory statement on an achievement of a local chess player, it reads as follows:

DA honours Kenny Solomon as South Africa's first International Chess Grandmaster

With great pride, the DA congratulates Kenneth Terence Solomon from Mitchell's Plain who will be awarded the title of International Grandmaster. Other than world champion, the International Grandmaster title is the highest official title bestowed for over the board play in the sport of Chess. Kenny has played more than 100 times in international competitions as he has represented South Africa at every Chess Olympiad since 1998. He has also won the South African Championship on four occasions.

We are heartened that one of the world's strongest chess players was born and bred in the Western Cape, in the City of Cape Town, in Lentegeur, Mitchell's Plain. We honour Kenny Solomon as a true role model and an inspiration to our youth in the province. Undoubtedly, Kenny is a real life example of rising above the challenges with which one is faced.

The DA welcomes the honour bestowed upon Grandmaster Kenny as sport contributes to social cohesion in the province. It is important to encourage the youth and communities to engage in positive sporting activities. This engagement has proven to be a powerful mechanism in combating

social ills within our communities and affords youth opportunities to excel, despite the many challenges they face on a daily basis. This, in turn sparks a sense of achievement and optimizes social behaviour and in effect promotes social cohesion, which is indeed lacking in some parts of our country.

I was privileged to have invited Grandmaster Kenny Solomon to the official opening of the Western Cape Provincial Parliament on Friday, 20 February 2015. I have also been afforded the opportunity of accompanying him as he visits several places across Cape Town, including his hometown of Mitchell's Plain. He is certainly a role model for the youth of our generation and I hope he will inspire them as much as he has me.

DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Cultural Affairs and Sport

The above press release won no media coverage on behalf of the DA WCPP. As such, its release did not manage to weave the DA brand promise into an issue that is topical and of public interest, one that voters care about. The statement was not current as it referred to something that has already happened and had no action step. As such, it was not newsworthy. While socially relevant, the content lacks detail. It leaves the reader unsatisfied in its reiterating political rhetoric that is already circulating in the public discourse.

Sample two:

The second sampling of communication is a press release by the same spokesperson, DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Cultural Affairs and Sport, on the seven footbridges that were renamed by the City of Cape Town municipality (local government), in the build up to a sitting of the WCPP. The debate at the sitting in question was the driver behind the release of the piece of communication in question, it was as follows:

'The renaming of towns with colonial names and the removal of colonial and apartheid statues from public space in light of their irrelevance in post-apartheid South Africa, with specific focus on the Western Cape values and identity.'

There are a number of dynamisms that influenced the issuing of the press release and that warranted its actioning, these are as follows:

1. The subject for discussion - debate - was proposed by one of the minority parties in the WCPP, the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF).
2. The subject for debate came in the wake of a response to a call by the EFF in the Western Cape (WC) on the Western Cape Government (WCG) to rename 40 towns in the province, in light of these names being reflective of a colonial history.
3. The Minister of Cultural Affairs and Sport in the WCG (DA WCPP executive member) levelled a response that was interpreted as dismissive of the call by the EFF, regarding point 2.

These three points present one set of political significances that impacted on especially the quality of coverage for the party in the WC as a whole. This because the EFF played on one of the key criticisms that is continuously levelled against the DA, that being that the DA is a party for white, middle class South Africans, with little empathy or appreciation for the challenges that face non-white and especially black South Africans. The press release in question preceded the debate in an effort to *win the spin* or set the tone before the debate took place and as such, it had a particular aim. The second sampling reads as follows:

WC: Local heroes honoured in renaming N2 and M3 foot crossings

24 June 2015

Release: immediate

Name changes provide an opportunity to reflect our shared history in a fair manner. As such, I commend the City of Cape Town (CoCT) on the extent to which it has consulted the public in the naming of 7 bridges that cross over Nelson Mandela Boulevard (N2) and Rhodes Drive (M3).

The Naming Committee at the CoCT will today meet to consider and recommend to the Mayor the proposed names for the bridges.

The CoCT remains consistent in its engagement with the public. In this particular process, those living in the metro were afforded an opportunity to submit suggested names to the public participation office. Adverts were run in the media, notices were also placed on site at the crossings which are to be renamed, encouraging these submissions. The CoCT received an overwhelming number of submissions in turn. The responses were largely positive due to this being an authentic consultation process.

In January 2015, following a vetting process, the Naming Committee in the CoCT approved 7 names, which were then again made available for public input during the period of 1 – 30 April 2015. The 7 proposed names are as follows:

Father John Oliver - An Anglican priest from District Six who passed away in 2013.

Father Basil van Rensburg - A South African Catholic priest who gained international recognition for his fight against the apartheid regime's forced removal of the people of District Six.

Taliep Pietersen - A renowned singer, composer and director of a number of popular musicals.

Tuan Guru - Imam Abdullah Ibn Qadhu Abdus Salaam, is regarded as the Father of Islam in South Africa, he was banished by the Dutch settlers to the Cape in 1780 and was incarcerated on Robben Island for 12 years until 1792.

Dawid Kruiper - A traditional healer and leader of the Khomani San in the Kalahari, he spoke of the rights of indigenous people to the United Nations in 1994, and led the way for successful land claims for the San People in South Africa.

/a!kunta (Klaas Stoffel) - The first contributor to the Wilhelm Bleek and Lucy Lloyd Archive of /xam and !kun texts. He arrived in Mowbray on 29 August 1870 and stayed until October 1873.

Ingrid Jonker - The South African poet who drowned at the age of 31, in Sea Point. Her poem 'Die Kind' was recited by former President Nelson Mandela during the opening of South Africa's first democratic parliament in 1994.

These crossings will be renamed after locals who made important contributions to our history. This initiative taken by the CoCT encourages the use of consultative processes, which serve to form an inclusive society. Name changes provide the opportunity to promote cultural diversity and strengthen community identity.

The DA in the Western Cape is committed to redressing the legacy of our past in a way that represents the will of the people, through the correct channels.

DA Western Cape Spokesperson on Cultural Affairs and Sport

The above press release received twelve media hits with an A.V.E. of R 295 514, 34 (Gate5, 2015). Each of the headlines generated read the line that the press release took. This means that the DA in the WCPP managed to set the tone, on the issue, in its favour and pre-emptively defend against a brand damaging attack in the parliamentary debate that took place the day after the press release was issued. The following is a list of the hits or mentions that the statement in question received. From this, the favourability of the headlines and subsequent coverage, as well as the AVE, can be observed:

| Website | Headline | Date | A.V.E. | Address | Favourability |
|----------------------------|--|-----------|----------|---|---------------|
| Iol.co.za - Iol News | 7 names for 7 bridges in Cape | 24-Jun-15 | R 37 393 | http://www.iol.co.za/news/politics/7-names-for-7-bridges-in-cape-1.1875913 | positive |
| Mg.co.za - Mail & Guardian | CT to honour seven citizens with landmark renaming | 24-Jun-15 | R 40 911 | http://mg.co.za/article/2015-06-24-ct-to-honour-seven-citizens-with-landmark-renaming/ | positive |
| Enca.com - ENCA | Cape Town to honour 7 | 24-Jun-15 | R 38 289 | http://www.enca.com/south-africa/taliep-pietersen-among-7-south-africans-be-honoured-western-cape | positive |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|------------------|---------------|---|----------------------|
| | South Africans | | | | |
| Dampl.co.za - Democratic Alliance MPL Assistance | Local heroes honoured in renaming N2 and M3 foot crossings | 24-Jun-15 | R 23 143 | http://www.dampl.co.za/2015/06/local-heroes-honoured-in-renaming-n2-and-m3-foot-crossings/ | positive |
| Ann7.com - Africa News Network 7 | City to honour its luminaries | 24-Jun-15 | R 13 822 | http://www.ann7.com/article/35354-24062015-city-to-honour-its-luminaries.html | positive |
| Thenewage.co.za - The New Age | City to honour its luminaries | 24-Jun-15 | R 28 607 | http://www.thenewage.co.za/163074-1011-53-City_to_honour_its_luminaries | positive |
| Dampl.co.za - Democratic Alliance MPL Assistance | WCPP Debate Speeches: Renaming of towns in the Western Cape | 29-Jun-15 | R 16 213 | http://www.dampl.co.za/2015/06/wcpp-debate-speeches-renaming-of-towns-in-the-western-cape/ | positive |
| Station | Headline | Date | A.V.E. | Audience | Favourability |
| RSG | City of Cape Town | 2015-06-24 18:02 | R 7 697 | 1,831,000 | positive |
| Kfm | Renaming of foot bridges | 2015-06-24 16:31 | R 8 072 | 863 | positive |
| RSG | City of Cape Town - Repeat | 2015-06-24 19:02 | R 2 726 | 1,831,000 | positive |
| Kfm | City of Cape Town - Foot bridges | 2015-06-25 10:03 | R 14 314 | 863 | positive |
| Publication | Headline | Date | A.V.E. | Page | Favourability |
| NEW AGE, THE | City to honour its luminaries | 25-Jun-15 | R 64 327 | p.6 | positive |

(Gate5, 2015).

Conclusion

The scope of the DA WCPP media office is much larger than what would be assumed off hand. That it operates in a niche political environment is not necessarily limiting to its performance. Rather, it is in this niche environment that a particularised approach to the communications released can build the credibility of the media office.

In terms of media has meant that there is much room to explore meaningful action steps such as the aforementioned action step, some *exploration* has yet to happen in order to achieve this in that the DA

media office in the WCPP is attempting to forge a space into existing coverage, out of which it is ordinarily squeezed. That there is much work to be done to carve a space in the media for the DA in the WCPP, pandering to the, very tempting, political culture of generalisation will sell this enterprise short.

While there is much to be said for the extent to which editors and journalists, media houses and the public filter and interpret the communications that is released by the DA in the WCPP, that which is within the ambit of control of the media office, must preferably be executed in a manner that is particular, rather than abstract. It is the particular and the detailed that will build the credibility of the spokespersons on the DA WCPP caucus and, over time, position them as trustworthy experts on their portfolios.

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The Effect of Banks on Income Distribution from the View of its Financial Brokerage Function: The Case of Turkey

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Abstract

Banks are the most important economic units to assist in the implementation of monetary policy in an economy. Banks are also business organizations that affect income distribution. In this study the effect of volume of deposits, volume of loans, deposit interest rates and volume of interest, in the banking system, were investigated in relation to income distribution. The relationship between these variables and the GINI Index is examined using correlation analyzes. SPSS 15.0 software was used in the analysis. In conclusion, increasing the volume of deposits and loans has been determined to cause a more equitable income distribution both in Turkey and in the world. However, it has been determined that increasing the volume of interest cause deterioration of more equitable income distribution in Turkey. In other words, the volume of interest comprised in the banking system in Turkey was determined to be among the factors leading to unfair distribution of income. The cause of this is the high interest rate applied in Turkey.

1. Introduction

Banks' basic function involves financial brokerage to bring together persons who have fund surpluses (saver) and funding need (investor) in the legal and administrative order and to ensure the transfer of funds (Akgüç, 1987). Banks are a kind of pool which is a collection of savings, accretion and rotated again in the economy as credit. So funds that are needed in the economy and accumulated in the banks pump back into the economy. These funds are used by individuals, businesses and the state (Raghubendra, 1994). While depositors are raising their total income by acquiring interest earnings, loaners are paying interest. So transfer of income can be ensured in society.

This study aims to determine whether or not the banks, which operate financial brokerage function, effect income distribution in a country. For this purpose, the effect of volume of deposit, volume of loan, deposit interest rate and volume of interest, in the banking system, were investigated on the income distribution. The relationship between these variables and the GINI Index has been identified by using correlation analysis. SPSS 15.0 software was used in the analysis.

2. The Relationship between Income Distribution and the Volume of Deposit

There is a linear relationship between wealth – savings and between savings –income level. And volume of deposits depends on the savings level in an economy. In this case, it is said that the increase of deposit volume in a country's banking system affects the distribution of income. Because richer people could make more savings and get income to increase their income more and more in the banking system by getting interest. On the other side people who exist at low and middle income levels could not make any savings. The relationship between income distribution and deposits volume is investigated in this section. In the study, first World situation was analyzed then the situation in Turkey. In the world we use deposit per person and total deposit/GDP ratio with 83 country's data in 2011-2012. We use deposit volume in Turkey. Correlation analysis was done. Analysis results are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: The Relationship between GINI Index and Deposits in the World

| | GINI Index | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| Per capita deposits | -0,279 | 0,01 |
| Deposits/GDP | -0,220 | 0,05 |

As seen on the Table 1, there is a significant inverse relationship between countries GINI Index and per capita deposits and deposits/GDP ratio. Accordingly the higher per capita deposits and total deposits share in GDP, the more equitable income distribution. Results of correlation analysis by using 16 years volume of deposits and GINI Index carried out in the Turkey is similar. The results are seen in Table 2.

Table 2: The Relationship between GINI Index and Deposits in Turkey

| | Deposit Volume | |
|------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | -0,681 | 0,01 |

As seen on the Table 2, there is a significant inverse relationship between deposits volume and GINI Index in Turkey. So it can be said that the higher volume of deposits, the more equitable income distribution in Turkey. But it should be considered that savings deposits are made by a few individuals in Turkey. It is seen that Turkey's savings distribution is as in Table 3.

Table 3: Savings Deposits Slices Account for Turkey in 2013

| Slices Account (Million TL) | Amount | | Number of account | |
|--------------------------------|------------|-----|-------------------|-----|
| | Million TL | % | Number (thousand) | % |
| 0-50 | 23 | 0,0 | 100,65 | 81 |
| 51-520 | 72 | 0,2 | 5,93 | 4 |
| 251-1.000 | 3.29 | | 6,44 | 5 |
| 1.001-5.000 | 10.87 | 3 | 4,99 | |
| 5.001-25.000 | 36.99 | 11 | 3,31 | 2 |
| 25.001-100.000 | 76.37 | 23 | 1,57 | 1 |
| 100.001+ | 202.48 | 61 | 62 | 0 |
| Total | 330.98 | 100 | 123,55 | 100 |

Reference: [The Banks Association of Turkey](#)

As shown in Table 3, while 81,5% of the total number of accounts constitute 0,07% of the total account charges, 0,5% of the total number of accounts constitute 61,2% of the total account charges. This table shows that the large part of savings in Turkey not belong to the poor but the rich. The poor can not be save. This situation may cause more richness and further deterioration of income distribution. And also the high interest rate leads to a further increase in this inbalance in Turkey. Therefore,

determining the correlation between the GINI Index and the volume of interest may be more meaningful. In section 3 below these relationships are examined.

3. The Relationship between Income Distribution and Total Volume of Interest in Turkey

While this analysis was done, it investigated the relationship between the share of national income of Turkey's 20% individual group and [Gross National Product \(GNP\)](#) ratio of total volume of interest which is formed in the banking system. We also investigated the relationship between GINI Index and volume of interest / GNP ratio.

Table 4: The Results of Volume of Interest and The Share of National Income of Turkey's 20% Individual Group Correlation Analysis

| 20% Individual Group and GINI Index | Total Volume of Interest / GNP Ratio | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | 0,834 | 0,01 |
| First 20% slice | -0,708 | 0,05 |
| Second 20% slice | -0,854 | 0,01 |
| Third 20% slice | -0,854 | 0,01 |
| Fourth 20% slice | -0,835 | 0,01 |
| Fifth 20% slice | -0,876 | 0,01 |
| First 80% slice | -0,890 | 0,01 |

Upon analyzing the Table 4, there is a positive correlation between total volume of interest / GNP ratio and GINI Index. Therefore income distribution is broken, while total volume of interest / GNP ratio is increasing. While the share of the GNP ratio which is taken by first and fourth 20% slice is decreasing, it increases for the fifth 20% slice. In other words, the rich get richer, the poor get poorer. It is seen that the relationship between total [interests earned](#) and expensed by banks and GINI Index in tableS 6 and 7.

Table 5: The Results of Volume of Interest Expensed and the Share of National Income of 20% Individual Group Correlation Analysis

| 20% Individual Group and GINI Index | Volume of Interest Expensed / GNP Ratio | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | 0,783 | 0,01 |
| First 20% slice | -0,673 | 0,01 |
| Second 20% slice | -0,817 | 0,01 |
| Third 20% slice | -0,806 | 0,01 |
| Fourth 20% slice | -0,780 | 0,01 |
| Fifth 20% slice | -0,842 | 0,01 |
| First 80% slice | -0,779 | 0,01 |

Table 5 shows us a positive correlation between volume of interest expensed/GNP ratio and GINI Index. Therefore income distribution is broken, while volume of interest expensed/GNP ratio is increasing. As volume of interest expensed by banks is increased, the share of the GNP ratio which is taken by first and fourth 20% slice is decreasing. The share increased for the fifth 20% slice.

Mainly, the banks give interest for depositors who are [high income groups](#). As volume of interest expensed by banks is increased, income distribution is more broken with the effect of [high interest rate policies](#) in Turkey.

At the section 2, we saw that as volume of deposits is increased, income distribution is become fairer both in Turkey and in the world. But this section shows us that, when volume of interest expensed by banks is increased, income distribution is broken. The cause of this situation which appears like a contradiction is the [high interest rate policy](#) applied in Turkey. This situation is also confirmed, when the relationship between [deposit interest rate](#) and income distribution is investigated. When the interest rates are decreased, volume of interest/GNP ratio will decrease. So it will make a fairer income distribution. In other words, for a fairer income distribution, it should be increase volume of deposits and decreased to interest rates.

Table 6: The Results of Volume of Interest Earned and the Share of National Income of 20% Individual Group Correlation Analysis

| 20% Individual Group and GINI Index | Volume of Interest Earned / GNP Ratio | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | 0,863 | 0,01 |
| First 20% slice | -0,722 | 0,01 |
| Second 20% slice | -0,867 | 0,01 |
| Third 20% slice | -0,881 | 0,01 |
| Fourth 20% slice | -0,868 | 0,01 |
| Fifth 20% slice | 0,888 | 0,01 |
| First 80% slice | -0,708 | 0,01 |

When Table 6 is investigated, there is a positive correlation between earned interest by banks/GNP ratio and GINI Index. Therefore income distribution is broken, while volume of interest earned/GNP ratio is increasing. As volume of interest earned by banks is increased, the share of the GNP ratio which is taken by first and fourth 20% slice is decreasing. The share is increase for the fifth 20% slice. When considering the high interest rates applied by banks, banks transfer to interest received from loans low income to the high income group. So it can say that income distribution is broken.

In section 5, we saw that as the volume of loans is increased, income distribution becomes fairer in both Turkey and in the world in general. But this section shows us that, when the volume of interest earned by banks is increased, equitable income distribution is diminished. The cause of this situation appears as a contradiction when [high interest rate policies](#) are applied in Turkey. When the interest rates are decreased, the volume of interest earned by banks/GNP decreases making income distribution fairer. For a fairer income distribution, volume of loans should be increased and interest rates decreased. The relationship between the interest rate and income distribution in investigated to test those assertions.

4. The Relationship between Income Distribution and [Deposit Interest Rate](#) in Turkey

While this analysis was done, it investigated the relationship between the share of national income of Turkey's 20% individual group and [weighted average](#) deposit interest rate. Also it is investigated that the relationship between GINI Index and [weighted average](#) deposit interest rate. The results are as Table 7.

Table 7: The Results of Deposit Interest Rate and the Share of National Income of 20% Individual Group Correlation Analysis

| 20% Individual Group and GINI Index | <u>Weighted Average</u> Deposit Interest Rate | |
|-------------------------------------|---|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | 0,453 | 0,120 |
| First 20% slice | -0,160 | 0,601 |
| Second 20% slice | -0,456 | 0,118 |
| Third 20% slice | -0,547 | 0,053 |
| Fourth 20% slice | -0,613 | 0,026 |
| Fifth 20% slice | 0,534 | 0,060 |
| First 80% slice | -0,539 | 0,057 |

When Table 7 is investigated, there is a positive correlation between weighted average deposit interest rate in banking system and GINI Index. Therefore income distribution is broken, while THE deposit interest rate is increasing. The coefficient of correlation is negative at the first and second 20% slice but meaningless because there is no possibility of interest income for these two slices. Coefficient of correlation is both negative at the third and fourth 20% slice and meaningful. In other words, as the deposit interest rate is increased, the share of GNP of Turkey's third and fourth 20% individual group is decreased. On the contrary, the coefficient of correlation is both positive and meaningful at the fifth 20% slice. That is to say as the interest rate is increased, people who have much take a larger share from GNP.

5. The Relationship between Income Distribution and Volume of Loan

The relationship between income distribution and volume of loans is investigated in this section. In the study, firstly the situation in the world is evaluated, then the situation in Turkey. Correlation analysis was done by using 81 countries per capita loan / GDP ratios in 2011 and 2012. The results of analysis are seen in Table 8.

Table 8: The Relationship between GINI Index and Loan

| | GINI Index | |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| Per Capita Loan | -0,308 | 0,01 |
| Loan / GDP | -0,259 | 0,01 |

Upon analyzing Table 8, there is a significant negative relationship between GINI Index and per capita loan, loan/GDP ratio in the world. Accordingly the higher per capita loan and total loan share in GDP, the more equitable income distribution. Correlation analysis by using 16 years volume of loans and the GINI Index carried out in Turkey is similar. The results are seen in Table 9.

Table 9: The Results of Volume of Loan and the Share of National Income of 20% Individual Group Correlation Analysis

| 20% Individual Group and GINI Index | Volume of Loan | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------|
| | Correlation Coefficient | Sign. |
| GINI Index | -0,593 | 0,05 |
| First 20% slice | 0,519 | 0,05 |
| Second 20% slice | 0,606 | 0,05 |
| Third 20% slice | 0,600 | 0,05 |
| Fourth 20% slice | 0,602 | 0,05 |
| Fifth 20% slice | -0,628 | 0,05 |
| First 80% slice | 0,635 | 0,05 |

Table 9 show us, as similar relationship in the world, there is a negative relationship between volume of loan in Turkey and the GINI Index. It can be said that as volume of loan is increased, income distribution will become fairer in Turkey. As volume of loan is increased, the share of the GNP ratio which is taken by the first, second, third and fourth 20% slice is increasing. The share is decrease for the fifth 20% slice.

6. Conclusion

Banks are the most important economic units to assist in the implementation of monetary policy in an economy. And banks are also business organizations affecting the income distribution. In this study, we investigated whether or not the banks fairly affect income distribution. As a result of study, it is found that banks may cause unfair income distribution because of high the interest rate applied in a country.

The banking system can effect income and wealth distribution with lending policies of banks. In this study it was found that there is a positive correlation between volume of loan and fair income distribution both in Turkey and in the world. In this study, it found that if interest rates are reduced, volume of interest/GNP ratio will also reduce. So this contributes to fairer income distribution. In other words, for fairer income distribution, it must increase volume of loan and reduce interest rates.

If there is a more per capita of deposits and deposits/GNP ratio in a country, there is fairer income distribution. Increase of deposits depends on saving and saving depends on high income. It can be said that increasing the volume of deposits contributed to fairer income distribution. But high interest rates can reverse it. It is possible to obtain savings and interest for the high income groups. So this situation causes to unfair income distribution. This situation is seen in Turkey. According to Turkey's savings deposit profile; while 81.5 % of the total number of accounts constitutes 0,07% of the total account charges in Turkey, 0.05 % of the total number of accounts constitutes 61.2 % of the total account charges. These results indicate that the majority of the savings occurred in Turkey still belongs to the group of rich and the poor are unable to save. High interest rates applied in Turkey cause an increase this imbalance. For instance, as the deposit interest rate is increased, the share of the GNP ratio which is taken by third and fourth 20% slice is decreasing. The share is increase for the fifth 20% slice. That is to say, as interest rate increases, people who already take more of the GNP share are further increasing their share. For a fairer income distribution, it is necessary to increase the volume of deposits and loans, reduce interest rates. If the interest rates are decreased, total volume of interest /GNP ratio is decrease. So there will be a fairer income distribution.

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Creative Strategy of Organizations: The Construct, Paradoxes and Relations with Performance

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Keywords: creative strategy, strategic innovativeness, performance

Objectives

The objective of the paper is to theoretically develop and empirically test the construct of creative strategy. The construct is understood as reconciling strategic paradoxes in four key areas: innovativeness, entrepreneurship, leadership and creative design of the organization. We argue that by animating creativity on the strategic level, organizations can unleash innovativeness of their members and develop competitive advantage. We propose that organizations should first look at new and useful ideas of their members rather than focus on economic results and competitive advantage. In this sense, the construct of creative strategy can serve as a tool revolutionizing the approach towards innovativeness of organizations.

Prior Work

Although the concept of creative strategy is mentioned in the literature (Kuhn 1989, Leigh 2012), the construct of creative strategy was first described by Bilton and Cummings (2010). Their perspective is, however, consultative. We develop this construct by adding the strategic management concepts, where creativity can be analyzed on the organizational level, and seen as a dynamic capability that leads to competitive advantage. In this sense, creative strategy is top management's strategic choice to shape conditions for developing creativity and thus revolutionize the way innovations are developed.

Approach

Our approach concentrates on developing existing theory, identifying the research gaps, and testing the theoretical construct throughout quantitative analyses. We have carried out our literature review in order to identify and develop the construct of creative strategy. Research hypotheses were identified, tested with descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlation analysis, and hierarchical regression.

Results

From the research carried out among 606 organizations in the transition economy in Poland, it seems that the theoretical dimensions of creative strategy (innovativeness, entrepreneurship, leadership, and design) are well-reflected in business practices. However, only a small number of organizations are able to reconcile paradoxes present in the dimensions of creative strategy, thus being able to transform creative ideas into innovations. The dimensions of creative strategy are not positively related to financial measures of performance. They are however related to performance measured with non-financial, subjective measures. It was possible to build an empirical model of relations between dimensions of creative strategy and performance.

Implications

The research shows, that in order to be more innovative and entrepreneurial, organizations need to strategically strengthen the conditions for unleashing individual creativity. Instead of focusing on results

We gratefully acknowledge the research support from the National Science Centre (grant number 2013/11/B/HS4/00673).

and competitive advantage, they should reach for new and useful ideas of their members, and the economic and strategic outcomes will consequently come.

Value

This paper is the first attempt – to our best knowledge – that develops the theoretical construct of creative strategy as offered by Bilton and Cummings (2010). It adds the strategic management perspective, operationalizes it, shows the link with firm performance, and develops recommendations for business practice.

Introduction

Innovativeness is usually presented as a stand-alone construct, and described by variables showing positive relations with dependent variables such as growth, performance, or sales figures. In this vein, innovativeness is treated as a remedy for company performance, and a stimulator of flexibility, higher level of entrepreneurship, strategic and competitive advantage. Innovativeness – as a process of bringing innovations into life at an organizational or strategic level is seen as an indispensable element of contemporary companies.

In fact, innovativeness itself usually requires considerable financial investments. Turning creative ideas into innovations – new products, services, technologies, business models or management processes – rarely is positively correlated with performance, or creates value by itself in the beginning. Allocating assets for preparing the new products or services on the basis of creative ideas requires some financial efforts at first. It is only a successful commercialization of the creative idea turned into innovation that creates value, results in performance, or animates and rejuvenates the organization in the long term.

In this paper we argue, that innovativeness, analysed on the organizational level should be the part of organizational strategy. Following Bilton and Cummings (2010) we label it ‘creative strategy’, a sequence of processes from selecting and developing creative idea (organizational creativity), turning it into innovation (strategic innovativeness) and commercializing it (strategic entrepreneurship). In order to be successful, this process sequence requires a support of proper strategic leadership and creative organizational design.

This paper therefore, calls for a certain kind of revolutionizing the approach to researching innovativeness. Instead of focusing on the outcomes – strategic advantage, competitive advantage, sales figures or firm performance – we suggest to look at the source of the outcomes – the creativity of organization members and teams, and creative ideas generated in organizations. To us, the proper process of selecting creative ideas, developing the most promising ones into innovations, and finally commercializing them in the dynamic and turbulent competitive marketplace is the source of contemporary companies’ success. Revolutionizing innovativeness – as we see it – is not focusing at the innovations by itself, but focusing at the sources of innovations – the creative ideas of people, which can be further developed into innovative products and services.

Following this line of reasoning, we argue that processes of supporting creativity in organizations should be strongly connected with the strategy of the organization. Structures and design, leadership, power in action and strategic processes should be revolving around supporting organizational creativity, and selecting the most promising ideas that could be potentially successful innovations.

First, we would like to present the dilemmas of linking organizational creativity and strategy. Then, we present the construct of creative strategy, and describe its dimensions. Third, we outline the paradoxes present in the process of preparing and implementing creative strategy. Finally, we attempt to operationalize the concept of creative strategy developed by Bilton and Cummings, and show the results of the research carried out in 606 Polish organizations. We decided to select the sample from organizations operating in Poland, as a region of intensive economic growth, high level of entrepreneurial opportunities exploitation, and steadily growing innovativeness. The research outlines the empirical dimensions of creative strategy, shows their level in transition economy, and tests the relations of creative strategy dimensions with financial and non-financial performance. Conclusions are

presented, some discussion with the theoretical model is led; limitations and future research results are proposed.

This study contributes to the creativity literature and strategic management theory by theoretically developing, and empirically operationalizing dimensions of creative strategy, and testing the relationships between particular dimensions and firm performance.

Creativity and strategy – two juxtaposing constructs

Change, innovation, entrepreneurship, and creativity represent key processes to organizations operating in the 21st century (Chell, 2001). Despite the central role of creativity as the basis of competitive advantage and a primary source of firm growth, our understanding organizational creativity representing a strategic asset remains limited. Creativity scholars have created a vast body of literature regarding a large number of contextual and individual factors, which can enable or inhibit the generation of creative ideas (Amabile 1996, Mumford, 2012; Weinzimmer, Michel & Franczak 2011). Unfortunately, little is known about the strategic role of creativity in entrepreneurial organizations. Moreover, while most previous studies considered micro-level characteristics of creativity, examining this phenomenon on organization-level performance can holistically increase the understanding of creativity. To address, this needs, strategic management concepts can be applied to examine the assumption that increased organizational creativity promotes firm performance.

Our focus is on the role of creative capability in the shaping of organizational strategy, and in consequence in firm performance. Given that a considerable rhetoric surrounds creativity in organizations, it is perhaps surprising that organizational creativity has received comparatively little attention from mainstream business and management researchers. In this study we develop a research framework, which integrated organizational creativity and strategic management, and explore the relationship between these constructs, as well as firm performance.

Bilton and Cummings (2010) convincingly argue that creativity and strategy usually regarded as constructs quite distant from each other, have actually much in common. One can integrate them into the concept of creative strategy that is based on four pillars: innovation, entrepreneurship, leadership and organizational design. Within these four key dimensions, paradoxes – contradicting situations that appear at the same time, and none can be removed – also have to be managed (DeWit, Meyer 2010), of in order to revive and integrate the entire organization (Weick, 1987). The idea presented by Bilton and Cummings does not offer specific solutions, but provides a theoretical framework encompassing a wide range of concepts and models.

Scholars suggest that strategy and creativity are two juxtaposing constructs. First of all, the process of creativity cannot be directly planned, while strategic management is connected, generally speaking, with planning. Strategic plans require coherency and some degree of predictability in further implementation. Therefore, in this respect creative strategy would mean strategic orientation of the organization on future and effective goal implementation with parallel discovering of the individual potential of organization members, with their unplanned paths and individual ways and methods of fulfilment of the objectives.

Second – according to Bilton and Cummings arguments – creativity requires constant reconciling of contradictions, bisociative thinking, moving between extreme solutions, and thinking out of the box. Strategic management, on the other hand, concentrates on classifying, grouping, and generally thinking inside the box. Creative strategy, therefore, could be treated as a process of stepping beyond the predefined status quo as well as adopting a more eclectic approach towards product, organization or sector, as well as switching between different strategic approaches. Third, creativity requires a holistic, comprehensive, and multi-lens approach. As Steve Jobs said, it requires crossing technology and art. (Isaacson, 2011). Traditionally, strategies in organizations are formulated by workers of one type (accountants, consultants, engineers), who got promoted for top management positions. The concept of creative strategy therefore, would focus on multi-level, multi-lens approach and multitude of points of view, perspectives, insights and dimensions of thinking.

Another reason why strategy seems to be in conflict with creativity is the approach to making mistakes. Creativity requires acting flexibly, in a non-standard way, reaching beyond the accepted framework, which can result in making mistakes. Strategic management, through proper planning and goal formulating assumes that every mistake is an undesired situation, which should be avoided. Therefore, the organizational capability to formulate creative strategy would mean identifying failures and flexibility in adopting to deal with them, instead of predicting mistakes and avoiding undesired situations. Strategic management concentrating on control and effectiveness misses the link between failure and success. Examples of many contemporary organizations show, that failures are often the source of breaking-through innovations or future successes.

The creativity process requires slack, relaxation and laziness from time to time, while strategic management focuses on effectiveness, deadlines, systematic effort, and efficient time management. It turns out, however, that the time of slack or laziness, though seems to be ineffective, lets people think, invent and analyse ideas and relations, observe and implement good practices, which can't be fulfilled under time pressure. What is more, managers think that strategic management, focused on goal realization assumes that creativity is a process typical for artists, not managers. The creativity process is indeed natural for all organization members on all levels of management, and strategy reflects many creative elements.

Bilton and Cummings further argue that stimulating imagination with non-standard incentives or impulses as well as communicating with images instead of texts unleashes creativity in organizations (Bilton & Cummings, 2010, p. 26). In their opinion, in the strategic management process organization members are being used to strategy as a forty-page report, while creative strategy should use images. It will be more understandable, dynamic, full of positive tensions and therefore more creative. Yet another difference between creativity and strategy concerns the nature of organizational culture and routines shaping. Strategic management views strategy creation as a process shaping strong organizational culture and mission. Creative strategy, on the other hand requires more open and varied organizational culture, which juxtaposes extreme ideas and values instead of finding and fixing "the golden middle" (Ford, 2002). Strategic management concentrates on verified recipes and on imitating best practices of the latest successful companies. This leads to quick, fixed solutions. Creative strategy formulation should be the effect of constant learning from the mistakes made, connected with further enthusiasm for new ideas (Fisher & Amabile, 2009).

Though contradicting at the first glance, creativity and strategy have much in common. As it was suggested above, there is a possibility in reconciling the contradictions of creativity – usually associated with chaos, improvisation, flexibility, disorder, illuminations and art, with strategy – typically associated with planning, predicting, systematic work and order. On the basis of this reconciliation, the concept of creative strategy, as presented by Bilton and Cummings (2010) will be developed in the next part.

Theoretical basics of creative strategy

In this section of the paper, we present the construct of creative strategy, and describe its dimensions: strategic innovativeness, strategic entrepreneurship, strategic leadership and creative design of the organization.

Christensen (1999) points out, that a source of problems, dysfunctions and pathologies in developing innovative products and services by organizations is lack of coherent strategy, that would act as a guide in selecting valuable projects, economically assessing feasibility of their success, as well as objectively rating their novelty, usefulness, and appropriateness. Therefore it is important to tailor strategic framework for the processes of organizational creativity, innovativeness and entrepreneurship.

Vicari (1998, in: Leigh 2012, p. 45) treats creative strategy as a combination of individual creativity and organizational creativity with low and high intensity of each dimension. As a confrontation of these two dimensions a typical four-field matrix is proposed, where four normative strategies are described: (a) strategy of stagnation or decline with no support for creativity, (b) strategy of Japanese business model with long-term orientation and innovativeness development, (c) strategy of passive approach towards

developing creativity, as well as (d) strategy of entrepreneurial organizations seeking and exploiting opportunities.

Kuhn (1989, p. 11-13), when analysing strategies of over hundred organizations, indicated ten types of creative strategies. A closer look at the proposed framework shows, that in many cases these strategies are based on the positioning school of strategic management, and the label „creative” refers only to dynamic and unusual exploitation of processes that shape strategic advantage, by concentrating on actions and goals, stimulating entrepreneurship, know-how of the sector and its trends, or focusing on flexible and creative approach towards planning budget.

As it was mentioned earlier, Bilton Cummings (2010, p. 30) suggest, that the nature of creative strategy lies in stepping beyond the contradiction between the aspects typically associated with creativity and features typically associated with strategy. Attempting to reconcile the contradictions and developing some recommendations for organizations, one may conclude, that: (a) creativity in organizations requires both strategic approach with planning and controlling, as well as more flexible approach with slack time, maturing of ideas, looking for opportunities and finding solutions, (b) creativity in organizations requires linking of the processes of formulating, implementing strategy and strategic control with fun, (c) creative strategy should focus on rational approach, data-based planning, as well as on spontaneity, improvisation (Miner, Bassoff, Moorman 2001), innovativeness not limited by resource constraints (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990).

Following the Mintzberg's 5P concept, one may say, that creative strategy is a set of plans, positions, patterns, ploys and perspectives that will generate and increase the value basing on new ideas. Furthermore, creative strategy is also connected with implementing actions at a strategic level, that help unleash organizational creativity for identifying and exploiting opportunities in order to increase firm performance. The concept of creative strategy assumes, that increasing value coming from innovative ideas is possible by reconciling paradoxes in four key dimensions of creative strategy: (a) strategic innovativeness, that is supporting organizational processes that will result in innovations based on creative ideas, (b) strategic entrepreneurship, that is turning the innovations into marketable products and services (commercialization), (c) strategic leadership, that promotes creativity and entrepreneurship, (d) strategic design of creative organization, that stimulates the processes of creativity, innovativeness and entrepreneurship. Strategic innovativeness, generally speaking, concentrates on exploiting creative idea in order to generate value. Strategic entrepreneurship builds a bridge between the art of innovation and the real market outside the organization. Strategic leadership focuses on consolidating, sustaining and developing innovative projects in organizations, as well as supporting all the processes of creative strategy: creativity, innovativeness, and entrepreneurship. Strategic design concentrates on generating proper structures, processes and organizational features that will unleash creativity throughout the whole organization. In the next section, the four dimensions of creative strategy will be analysed.

The dimensions of creative strategy

Strategic innovativeness is a combination of innovations that are developed by, and inside organizations, (Miller, 1983) with strategic thinking (Graetz 2002, p. 456). It is defined as reorienting the strategy of organization, aiming at creating new value for customers and the organization itself (Johnston and Bate 2007, p. 4). Strategic innovativeness is a long-term process of introducing innovations, which makes it possible to fulfil goals on the strategic level of management. It embraces a set of coordinated actions and efforts, starting with generating the idea, its approval and dissemination. These processes require planning, bottom-up ideas, skills, tacit and explicit knowledge, information flow, knowledge sharing, as well as securing funds for commercialization. The level of strategic innovativeness depends on the nature of the organization, sector of activity, age, size and other control variables, as innovations are differentiated, uncertain, and require cooperation and support from functional teams (Pavitt 1991). Companies that develop strategic innovativeness, strengthen their structures and infrastructure (Pycraft, Singh and Phihlela, 1997, p. 169). They can be flexible in the short term, and deal seamlessly with threats from competitors; they also are capable of introducing new products and ideas in a relatively short time, as the strategic level of innovativeness strengthens the organizational culture, and creates certain routines.

Van de Ven (1988) indicates certain challenges connected with managing innovations in organizations, among which most important are: (a) proper management of organizational members' attention, that will make them focus on developing new ideas, (b) managing social and political dynamics of innovation; remembering about social aspects of management, and processed of organizational politicking, (c) managing the processes of creating proper organizational infrastructure, that will be a strong driver for innovations. Organizations treating innovativeness as a strategic process can result in a number of positive outcomes (Alsaaty 2011, p. 3): (a) organizational and strategic renewal, (b) increasing performance in the long term, (c) increasing productivity and decreasing costs, (d) dominant position in the market, (e) securing assets with sustained and constant access to them, (f) exploiting opportunities (g) increasing market value, (h) competitive advantage.

The second dimension of creative strategy is strategic entrepreneurship, understood as commercializing the innovation, or – in other words – turning the selected and promising innovations based on creative ideas into marketable products and services. Strategic entrepreneurship is therefore connected with implementing large-scale or important innovations into the market, which will create competitive advantage. These innovations may result in new businesses started within organizations (Moris, Kuratko & Covin 2008). Strategic entrepreneurship processes can also result in innovations that appear in the strategy itself, offered products, serviced markets, modes of organizing and in the business models. Therefore, different forms of strategic entrepreneurship can appear: strategic renewal, constant regeneration, re-definition of the domain of activity, rejuvenation, or reconstructing the business model.

Strategic management concentrates more and more on the entrepreneurial activities of the organization. Integration of strategic management and corporate entrepreneurship processes creates strategic entrepreneurship that focuses on exploiting organizational capabilities and competences in the process of seeking, identifying, exploiting and commercializing opportunities (Shane 2003). In order to strengthen these processes, scholars indicate a number of managerial activities that help to stimulate strategic entrepreneurship (Morris & Kuratko 2008, p. 161): (a) formulating entrepreneurial vision, (b) strengthening the perception of opportunities, (c) institutionalizing change, (d) strong motivation for developing innovative behaviours, (e) investing in human resources, (f) sharing responsibility, risk, and rewards, (g) accepting failure, and learning from it.

If the understanding of strategic entrepreneurship, as a process of turning innovations into marketable ideas can be accepted, researchers identify five phases of the process (Bilton & Cummings 2010, p. 112): (a) phase of identification, based on realizing, that a certain idea has a potential for commercialization, (b) phase of development, focusing on preparation for turning the innovation into products or services, (c) phase of assessment, which answers the question if the innovation is worth further development, (d) phase of preparing new products or services, (e) implementation phase – launching the product and selling it. The five phases create a complete cycle of strategic entrepreneurship, where first two are associated with dilettantness and fun, while the last two are connected with diligence and hard work.

As a further development of this conceptualization of strategic entrepreneurship, Hitt, Ireland, Simon and Trahms (2011) offered a dynamic, multi-level, input-output framework, where creativity is treated both as individual and organizational resource. The proposed framework describes three important elements of strategic entrepreneurship: resources and organizational features, environmental factors (environmental wealth; resource richness), processes of resource orchestration, and organizational outcomes. It is important to notice, that this framework focuses on the ways resources are used by organization in order to commercialize innovations.

The processes of creativity in organizations that lead to developing and commercializing innovative products or services cannot be effective without the support on the strategic level. The sequence: creative idea-innovation-entrepreneurship (commercialization) requires the organizational support of strategic leadership.

The task of strategic leadership is to consolidate, sustain, and develop business projects and ventures, as well as to coordinate and inspire the processes of innovativeness. Scholars find it difficult to define the scope of strategic leadership (Guillot 2003, p. 67). Canella and Monroe (1999) point out, that research concerning strategic entrepreneurship focuses predominantly on the CEO perspective, which confirms the common belief, that strategic entrepreneurship is directly connected with leaders on the top level of company structure. In this stream of research, certain attributes and behaviours of leaders are indicated as a source of strategic success, such as hard work, leadership and interpersonal skills, motivating, ability of learning, skilful combination of strategic planning with strategy implementation, innovation management and organizational change (Charlton 1993, s. 13). In a more extensive approach, strategic leadership is understood as a combination of two perspectives: orientation on people on the top level of management, with concentrating on their actions and strategic choices (Canella 2001, p. 40).

As long as leadership concerns influencing people, strategic leadership concerns organization as a whole, as a higher level of analysis. Strategic theories of leadership discuss the problems of leading the organization in a holistic way, with regard to co-evolution, and changing goals and capabilities (Boal i Hooijberg 2000, p. 516). From this perspective it is vital to understand the organization as a unity, with the task environment (Louw & Venter 2006). To-date, it is accepted, that strategic leadership in organizations is shaped by six key elements (Ireland & Hitt 1999, p. 47): (a) formulating vision and mission, (b) exploiting and sustaining core competences by knowledge and intellectual capital development, (c) developing human capital and investing in it, (d) developing strong organizational culture, (e) sustaining ethical practices across the organization, (f) balancing financial control with strategic control. On the other hand, Bilton and Cummings (2010) define strategic leadership as a capability of formulating strong vision combined with the skills of building social capital and strong networks, both inside and outside organization.

Stimulating organizational creativity, turning ideas into innovations, and marketing them, requires – apart from strong leadership on the strategic level – a proper organizational design. The challenge of this dimension of creative strategy lies in creating and developing such a structure, and such vital features of the organization, where the processes of creativity and innovativeness will be further developed. Creative organizational design should create a proper organizational context, where strategic potential and effectively orchestrated resources will result in desired outcomes, such as higher level of organizational creativity and increase in value creation. The organizational context stimulating creativity requires both tight and loose structures, as well as balancing between concentration time and slack time (Bilton & Cummings, 2010). Tight structures assure implementing of the strategic plan, whereas loose structures allow bottom-up ideas, and innovative approaches to problem solving. Concentration time, with proper intensity of actions and behaviours will result in meeting the requirements expected in the strategic plan. Slack time makes it possible for organization members to think and reflect on new ideas, and facilitates the “eureka” effect.

Structures and time aside, proper organizational design that promotes creativity, should feature certain attributes that will unleash creativity within, and outside the organizational structures. According to Bilton and Cummings, strategic design of creative organization needs to develop the following features: (2010, p. 207): (a) strong organizational culture, that on one hand integrates and unifies the organization, but on the other hand allows it to adopt to environmental changes and introduce innovative ideas, (b) proper organizational climate, where promising creative ideas are assessed objectively and promoted depending on their value, regardless where they come from, and by whom they are introduced (c) environment that leaves room for idea exchange between experts and naive enthusiasts, (d) entrepreneurship processes (Pinchot 1985), with new idea generation both inside and outside of organization, (e) multitasking, (f) ambidexterity (Tushman, Anderson, O'Reilly 1997), (g) optimal approach towards introducing change; avoiding change for the sake of changing.

In this section, four dimensions of creative strategy were described: strategic innovativeness, strategic entrepreneurship, strategic leadership and creative organizational design. Scholars indicate, that these elements of creative strategy are not uni-dimensional, and that each of them is torn with tensions and

contradictions. The next section presents shortly the dilemmas of creative strategy, with regard to each dimension.

The paradoxes of creative strategy

Juxtaposing creativity and strategy will create unavoidable tensions in the process of strategy formulation. The concept of creative strategy assumes, that there are contradictions in four areas: (a) innovativeness, (b) entrepreneurship, (c) leadership, and (d) organizational design. The first area where dilemmas or contradictions appear is innovativeness (Bessant & Tidd, 2011). It requires combining or reconciling two factors (a) observing and discovering phenomena that were present, but were not revealed, (b) creating new things through opinion and idea exchange.

The second area of creative strategy where contradictions are present is entrepreneurship, understood as bringing innovations into the market. Entrepreneurship, proactive opportunity seeking, requires reconciling the contradiction between dilettantness and diligence. Entrepreneurs are often seen as people, who look for interesting ideas in a non-standard, informal ways. They look for opportunities by travelling, testing and having fun. On the other hand, they must be precise and diligent in order to introduce new product that seems to be a marketable idea.

The third element in the process of formulating creative strategy that requires reconciling paradoxes is leadership. Strong leadership in organization allows integrating powers and resources necessary to capture the innovativeness potential and entrepreneurial actions. It requires managing the paradox of (a) being the visionary on one hand, and (b) building relations and acting together inside and outside of organizations. The last area of creative strategy where contradictions appear is the design of organization. The contradiction concerns the structure that would promote developing the initiated innovations. Such a structure would require reconciling the paradox between (a) focusing and (b) loosening. Concentration and proper intensity of actions allows implementing the strategic plan as well as to be effective, and efficient in time management. Loosening, on the other hand, gives people and organization the time to thinking, where new ideas and innovations occur, creating the 'eureka' or illumination effect.

Assuming the existence of four dimensions of creative strategy we posit, that developing creative organization is realized effectively by reconciling contradictions in the multidimensional processes of innovativeness and entrepreneurship, leadership and organizational design which results in animating and integrating the whole organization. Thinking in the category of paradoxes and their reconciliation requires developing solutions that will sustain stability and continuity, keeping the satisfying process of adaptability and innovativeness. A set of such solutions –in the case of creative strategy – could be creative discovery, professional dilettantness, diligent venture preparation with improvising and experimenting; formulating vision through interaction, as well as lose concentration.

Creative strategy dimensions and performance

Organizational performance can be defined as the ability to secure assets needed for its survival (Stone, Bigelow and Crittenden 1999, s. 378) or ability to create value that will be accepted by customers and other stakeholders (Epstein & Manzoni 2008). Lim (1995) points out, that performance is a level of effective realization of the goals, connected with the characteristics of given organization. According to Yeo (2003) performance in empirical research is usually associated with financial effectiveness or the level of profits earned. It is important, when discussing performance, to take into consideration both quantitative measures (sales figures, ROA, ROE, etc.) as well as qualitative, and subjective, non-financial ones (efficiency, stakeholder satisfaction, turnover, employee satisfaction, growth).

Contemporary challenge of strategic management lies in increasing performance (Venkatraman & Ramajunan 1986). However, there is no consensus as to universal performance measures (Cameron 1986). Usually, in the research concerning innovativeness, entrepreneurship and strategy, financial measures as indicators of performance are used. (see eg. Zahra & Das 1993, Zahra & Covin 1993). These indicators are analysed for past three years in order to see the influence of time on effectiveness (Zahra 1996). Both objective, financial measures of performance, as well as subjective, non-financial

ones have their advantages and disadvantages. Financial measures are typically assumed as more precise, controllable and reflecting the existing standing of the organization. It seems however, that subjective measures can hold precise information as well, completing the picture presented by financial measures (Dess & Robinson 1984, Shea, De Cieri, Sheehan 2010). As much as financial measures are the picture of the past, subjective measures reflect intents, desires, and future prospects of the top management. What is more, subjective measures used to analyse large samples, are biased with similar statistical errors as financial ones (Davidsson 2005). It is important therefore to use both types of measures in the empirical research (Rajan & Reichelstein 2009).

Having discussed the challenges concerning performance measurement, we can focus on some theoretical relations between the dimensions of creative strategy and performance. The analysed relations usually concern new technology firms, or companies operating in the production sector (Nicholson, Rees & Brooks-Rooney 1990). Many scholars indicate the relation between innovativeness and effectiveness or competitive advantage of organizations, wealth creation and market success (Davila, Epstein & Shelton 2006). Recent research proves, that social capital is a moderator between strategic innovativeness and performance (Rass, Dumbach, Danzinger, Bullinger & Möslin 2013). However, investing in the innovation may relate negatively to cash flow and effectiveness. It is therefore vital to analyse the relations between innovativeness and performance together with the next phase of creative strategy, i.e. strategic entrepreneurship.

The relation between entrepreneurship and performance is much analysed in the literature (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin & Frese 2009, Zahra, Jennings & Kuratko 1999). Entrepreneurship on the strategic level is mostly understood as entrepreneurial orientation of the organization, which is a leading construct in the entrepreneurship theory (Lumpkin & Dess 1996, George 2011).

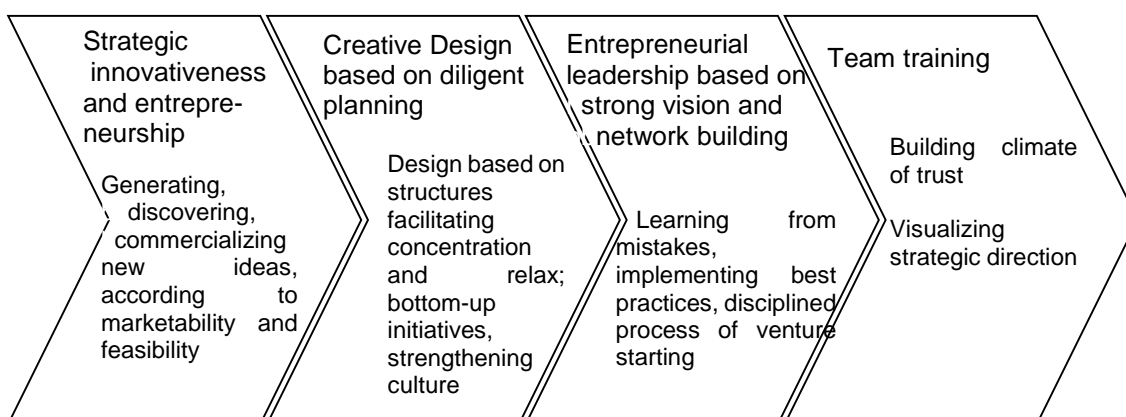
Relations between strategic leadership and performance have also been recognized by researchers (Finkelstein, Hambrick & Cannella 2007, p. 204). The attention is however shifted towards the effects of managerial work, differences in personal characteristics of leaders, level of mentoring, or managerial structure and effectiveness. Still there is a body of research indicating the positive relations between strategic leadership and outcomes of organization's functioning such as adaptability to challenges (Hitt, Ireland, Hoskisson 2005), competitiveness (Ireland & Hitt 1999) financial effectiveness (Alvesson, Sveningsson 2003, performance (Maritz 1995, Bass 1997, Charlton 2000) or implementation of radical change (DuBrin 2012, p. 22).

There is some discussion on the relation between organizational structures and performance as well (Child 1972). It is argued however, that that the relation between structures and performance cannot be analysed separately, and that other contextual factors such as task environment, market choice or sector of activity will determine structures, which in turn will influence performance.

Operationalization of creative strategy

The dimensions of creative strategy and relations depicted in the theoretical section of the paper may be presented in the research model (Figure 1)

Figure 1: The research model



Source: own study

Basing on the research model, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The construct of creative strategy is composed of four dimensions: strategic innovativeness, strategic entrepreneurship, strategic leadership and creative organizational design.

Hypothesis 2: Organizations implement creative strategy by reconciling paradoxes in each dimension.

Hypothesis 3: There are positive relations between creative strategy dimensions and performance.

Research tool

We decided to collect data by means of survey. Dimensions of creative strategy, contradictions of creative strategy, and performance measures were operationalized and presented as variables, whose level was assessed by statements in the questionnaire. The respondents' task was to assess the statements on the 7-point Likert scale.

The dimension of strategic innovativeness was described by ten statements, strategic entrepreneurship by seven statements, strategic leadership by six statements, and creative design by nine statements. The fifth part of the questionnaire consisted of statements describing four contradictions in the dimensions of creative strategy. This part was designed in a way, making it possible for the respondent to assess each contradiction by two statements (eight statements altogether.). In the sixth part of the questionnaire performance measures were operationalized. Following the discussion in the theoretical section, we used both objective, financial measures (return on sales, return on equity, return on assets) as well as non-financial ones, using the scale items proposed by Antoncic and Hisrich (2003).

Sample and empirical research

The questionnaire has been sent to over 2000 top managers of business organizations operating in Poland in 2012. The companies were randomly selected from all sectors of activity. The choice of the transition economy organizations is justified by the drive towards innovation, relatively high speed of change, orientation for creativity and opportunity exploitation. 606 questionnaires qualifying for further empirical analyses were returned. The return rate was relatively high due to phone calls or personal visits in the companies. 50.5% of organizations were small, 16.1 % medium-sized, and 33.4% were large corporations. 18.2% of the researched organizations operate in services, 16% in trade, 11.1% are involved in production, 10.7% operate in the building and constructions sector, 9.7% deal with finance and insurance. The remaining branches represented less than 10%.

For analysing the data and hypotheses testing, we used IBM SPSS 20 and MPlus 3.0 software.

Empirical dimensions of creative strategy

In order to empirically test the dimensions of creative strategy, we used factor analysis (Table 1).

Table 1
Cronbach's alphas for scales describing creative strategy

| Creative strategy dimension | Scale average when statement removed | Variance when statement removed | Std. dev. when statement removed | Correlation between statement and scale as a whole (higher=better) | Alpha when statement removed |
|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|------------------------------|
| I. Strategic innovativeness | Scale summary: Average=42.33 Std. dev.=9.31. Cronbach alpha: 0.908 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 38.462 | 70.717 | 8.409 | 0.661 | 0.900 |
| Statement 2 | 38.205 | 70.628 | 8.404 | 0.711 | 0.897 |
| Statement 3 | 38.059 | 69.693 | 8.348 | 0.728 | 0.896 |
| Statement 4 | 38.107 | 71.753 | 8.471 | 0.657 | 0.900 |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|--------|-------|-------|--------------|
| Statement 5 | 38.056 | 70.036 | 8.369 | 0.721 | 0.896 |
| Statement 6 | 38.414 | 72.117 | 8.492 | 0.569 | 0.906 |
| Statement 7 | 37.649 | 72.119 | 8.492 | 0.576 | 0.905 |
| Statement 8 | 37.922 | 70.804 | 8.415 | 0.701 | 0.897 |
| Statement 9 | 37.975 | 70.196 | 8.378 | 0.709 | 0.897 |
| Statement 10 | 38.165 | 70.560 | 8.400 | 0.673 | 0.899 |
| II. Strategic entrepreneurship | Scale summary: Average= 29.4736 Std. dev. = 6.89964, Cronbach alpha: 0.897 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 25.667 | 36.919 | 6.076 | 0.550 | 0.900 |
| Statement 2 | 25.351 | 34.446 | 5.869 | 0.747 | 0.877 |
| Statement 3 | 25.243 | 34.887 | 5.906 | 0.788 | 0.872 |
| Statement 4 | 25.299 | 35.573 | 5.964 | 0.732 | 0.879 |
| Statement 5 | 25.162 | 36.013 | 6.001 | 0.733 | 0.879 |
| Statement 6 | 25.083 | 35.340 | 5.945 | 0.711 | 0.881 |
| Statement 7 | 25.038 | 35.426 | 5.952 | 0.664 | 0.887 |
| III. Strategic leadership: first factor | Scale summary: Average= 17.9538 Std. dev. = 4.39020, Cronbach alpha: 0.755 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 13.606 | 11.651 | 3.413 | 0.556 | 0.696 |
| Statement 2 | 13.475 | 11.272 | 3.357 | 0.612 | 0.665 |
| Statement 3 | 13.206 | 11.830 | 3.440 | 0.523 | 0.714 |
| Statement 4 | 13.574 | 12.073 | 3.475 | 0.517 | 0.717 |
| III. Strategic leadership: second factor | Scale summary: Average= 8.327 Std. dev. = 2.572, Cronbach alpha: 0.549 | | | | |
| III. Strategic leadership: all items | Scale summary: Average=29.4736 Std. dev. = 6.89964, Cronbach alpha: 0.897 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 21.932 | 25.420 | 5.042 | 0.522 | 0.707 |
| Statement 2 | 21.802 | 24.875 | 4.987 | 0.571 | 0.693 |
| Statement 3 | 21.533 | 26.041 | 5.103 | 0.465 | 0.722 |
| Statement 4 | 21.901 | 24.769 | 4.977 | 0.585 | 0.690 |
| Statement 5 | 21.977 | 25.914 | 5.091 | 0.475 | 0.719 |
| Statement 6 | 22.257 | 26.640 | 5.161 | 0.346 | 0.758 |
| IV. Design of creative organization: first factor | Scale summary: Average= 12.5198 Std. dev. = 2.97351 Cronbach alpha: 0.755 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 8.315 | 4.318 | 2.078 | 0.575 | 0.684 |
| Statement 2 | 8.482 | 4.454 | 2.111 | 0.601 | 0.654 |
| Statement 3 | 8.243 | 4.438 | 2.107 | 0.578 | 0.680 |
| IV. Design of creative organization: Second factor | Scale summary: Average= 8.429 Std. dev. = 2.204 Cronbach alpha: 0.745 | | | | |
| IV. Design of creative organization: third factor | Scale summary: Average=17.5132 Std. dev. = 4.14278 Cronbach alpha: 0.845 | | | | |
| Statement 4 | 13.076 | 10.133 | 3.183 | 0.680 | 0.804 |
| Statement 5 | 13.213 | 10.207 | 3.195 | 0.714 | 0.790 |
| Statement 6 | 13.086 | 10.151 | 3.186 | 0.676 | 0.805 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| Statement 7 | 13.165 | 10.055 | 3.171 | 0.655 | 0.815 |
| IV. Design of creative organization: all items | Scale summary: Average= 38.6254 Std. dev.= 8.27382 Cronbach alpha: 0.889 | | | | |
| Statement 1 | 34.421 | 56.712 | 7.531 | 0.539 | 0.884 |
| Statement 2 | 34.587 | 56.262 | 7.501 | 0.605 | 0.879 |
| Statement 3 | 34.348 | 54.399 | 7.376 | 0.702 | 0.872 |
| Statement 4 | 34.188 | 53.621 | 7.323 | 0.716 | 0.870 |
| Statement 5 | 34.325 | 54.276 | 7.367 | 0.713 | 0.871 |
| Statement 6 | 34.198 | 54.799 | 7.403 | 0.644 | 0.876 |
| Statement 7 | 34.277 | 53.811 | 7.336 | 0.674 | 0.874 |
| Statement 8 | 34.287 | 54.413 | 7.376 | 0.582 | 0.882 |
| Statement 9 | 34.371 | 54.474 | 7.381 | 0.620 | 0.878 |

Source: own study

The results of factor analysis show, that the empirical dimensions of creative strategy fit theoretical categories well. All four dimensions, when analysed separately, could be described by the statements included in the questionnaire. The values of Cronbach's alphas are high, which means that the proposed operationalization of the creative strategy construct is proper, and that certain dimensions of creative strategy can be described by variables proposed in the questionnaire. For the sake of curiosity, however, we also carried out the factor analysis for all dimensions of creative strategy, and rotated all the items. According to the criterion of eigenvalues, the factors are presented as it is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Factor analysis of the whole scale measuring creative strategy – the criterion of eigenvalues

| Statement in the questionnaire | Factor 1 | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Innov. 1 | 0,716 | 0,221 | 0,134 | 0,094 |
| Innov. 2 | 0,728 | 0,216 | 0,224 | 0,057 |
| Innov. 3 | 0,663 | 0,170 | 0,350 | 0,117 |
| Innov. 4 | 0,630 | 0,158 | 0,343 | -0,003 |
| Innov. 5 | 0,638 | 0,212 | 0,343 | 0,171 |
| Innov. 6 | 0,633 | 0,044 | 0,078 | 0,271 |
| Innov. 7 | 0,361 | 0,107 | 0,623 | 0,153 |
| Innov. 8 | 0,527 | 0,085 | 0,531 | 0,292 |
| Innov. 9 | 0,557 | 0,184 | 0,457 | 0,228 |
| Innov. 10 | 0,664 | 0,268 | 0,151 | 0,233 |
| Entrepr. 1 | 0,654 | 0,330 | -0,052 | 0,070 |
| Entrepr. 2 | 0,631 | 0,472 | 0,176 | 0,036 |
| Entrepr. 3 | 0,615 | 0,479 | 0,230 | 0,028 |
| Entrepr. 4 | 0,558 | 0,468 | 0,193 | 0,098 |
| Entrepr. 5 | 0,506 | 0,499 | 0,321 | -0,055 |
| Entrepr. 6 | 0,442 | 0,445 | 0,399 | -0,003 |
| Entrepr. 7 | 0,436 | 0,390 | 0,466 | 0,016 |
| Leadership 1 | 0,122 | 0,325 | 0,597 | 0,059 |
| Leadership 2 | 0,102 | 0,223 | 0,739 | 0,115 |
| Leadership 3 | 0,142 | 0,230 | 0,649 | -0,028 |
| Leadership 4 | 0,195 | 0,255 | 0,486 | 0,397 |
| Leadership 5 | 0,169 | 0,314 | 0,264 | 0,577 |
| Leadership 6 | 0,154 | 0,200 | 0,015 | 0,776 |
| Design 1 | 0,254 | 0,405 | 0,370 | 0,065 |
| Design 2 | 0,380 | 0,491 | 0,197 | 0,166 |

| | | | | |
|---|-------|--------------|-------|-------|
| Design 3 | 0,335 | 0,512 | 0,364 | 0,269 |
| Design 4 | 0,307 | 0,522 | 0,446 | 0,170 |
| Design 5 | 0,288 | 0,605 | 0,294 | 0,265 |
| Design 6 | 0,290 | 0,594 | 0,292 | 0,045 |
| Design 7 | 0,200 | 0,679 | 0,261 | 0,139 |
| Design 8 | 0,158 | 0,656 | 0,131 | 0,150 |
| Design 9 | 0,122 | 0,694 | 0,122 | 0,291 |
| Explained variance | 6,801 | 5,144 | 4,345 | 1,805 |
| % | 0,213 | 0,161 | 0,136 | 0,056 |
| Dimension 1, statements: Innov. 1-6; Innov. 9-Entrepr. 5; Dimension 2, statements: Entrepr. 6; Design 1-9 Dimension 3, statements: Innov. 7-8; Entrepr. 7-Leadership 4; Dimension 4, statements: Leadership 5-6. | | | | |

Source: own study

The results of factor analysis that took into consideration all items in the measurement scale, indicates that there is possibility to define four dimensions of creative strategy, which – according to the statements in the questionnaire – can be labelled as follows: 1) strategic innovativeness and entrepreneurship, 2) organizational design based on diligent venture planning, 3) entrepreneurial leadership based on strong vision, network building, learning from mistakes and adopting best practices, 4) team support based on building the climate of trust as well as visualizing strategy. This analysis shows, that there are still four dimensions of creative strategy, with some reconfigurations.

What is interesting, according to this analysis strategic innovativeness and strategic entrepreneurship were linked together as one dimension. This could mean, that innovativeness itself is not a standalone strategic choice. The process of turning creative ideas into innovations has to be followed by proper opportunity recognition, idea evaluation and commercialization. Following this reasoning, innovativeness itself does not have strategic meaning, when it is not supported by processes of transformation into the marketable, economically feasible ideas. Second conclusion from this analysis, is the fact of enriching strategic leadership dimension with some variables describing innovativeness and entrepreneurship. It could suggest, that there is a certain level of importance as far as entrepreneurial style of leadership is required, when stimulating creativity in organizations. Leadership that supports opportunity exploitation should also be extended by learning processes, adopting good practices present in the market (and realized by competitors).

Third conclusion, when analysing the alternative dimensions of creative strategy is the emergence of a new factor from items describing leadership. We labelled it „team building and training”, according to the statements describing this factor. It is based on building the climate of trust, as well as visualising strategy with other means than just formal documents. Finally, while the innovativeness dimension proved to be based both on creating/generating new ideas and discovering existing ideas, the entrepreneurship dimension is based more on diligent planning than dilettantness and fun. To conclude, in order to successfully implement creative strategy, managers should rather concentrate on structures that support precise planning, strategic evaluation of feasibility and economic rationale. Dilettantness, amateur approach and fun in the process of opportunity seeking and exploiting can only be treated complementarily, not as a basis. Strategic dimension requires transforming creative ideas according to some implications of the planning school of strategic management.

To sum up, the factor analysis of separate dimensions of creative strategy confirmed the four theoretical dimensions as described by Bilton and Cummings (2010). However, the factor analysis of the whole scale indicated some reconfigurations between the theoretical dimensions. Still, the values of Cronbach's alphas of the original items are high, which makes it possible to analyse further the four theoretical dimensions of creative strategy. In order to assess the level of creative strategy dimensions, we used descriptive statistics, and compared average values, as assessed on the Likert scale (Table 3).

Table 3
Descriptive statistics for creative strategy dimensions

| Creative strategy dimension | N | Average | Std. Dev. | Median | Min | Max | Q25 | Q75 | Std. error |
|------------------------------------|----------|----------------|------------------|---------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|-------------------|
| Innovativeness | 606 | 4.23 | 0.93 | 4.30 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.70 | 4.90 | 0.04 |
| Entrepreneurship | 606 | 4.21 | 0.99 | 4.29 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.71 | 4.71 | 0.04 |
| Leadership | 606 | 4.49 | 1.10 | 4.50 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.75 | 5.25 | 0.04 |
| Design | 606 | 4.29 | 0.92 | 4.33 | 1.00 | 7.00 | 3.78 | 4.89 | 0.04 |

Source: own study

The descriptive statistics indicate, that the average levels of creative strategy dimensions represent similar values, and are close to '4'. On average, strategic leadership scored highest, while strategic entrepreneurship obtained lowest value. Innovativeness and creative design indicate similar values. Interpreting the data, one can say, that the researched organizations represent good level of innovativeness (in the subjective opinions of top management) while commercialization of these ideas has been assessed slightly lower. Leadership is perceived as good, but it seems that is not always effective, as the entrepreneurship dimension scored relatively lower. When controlled for age, size, and sector of analysis, the researched organizations did not show statistically significant differences in the level of creative strategy. This could mean, that the empirical dimensions of creative strategy are universal for all types of business organizations.

This part of the research results has shown, that there is no basis to reject hypothesis 1 stating, that creative strategy is a construct composed of four dimensions: strategic innovativeness, strategic entrepreneurship, strategic leadership, and creative design. Of course, there are some reconfigurations between theoretical dimensions, but when analysed separately, the theoretical categories were confirmed.

Reconciling the paradoxes in creative strategy dimensions

The level of reconciliation of creative strategy paradoxes is presented in Table 4.

Table 4
The level of creative strategy paradoxes reconciliation

| Paradox between generating new ideas vs. discovering existing ideas in the environment | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|--------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| Value | No of organizations | Cumulated N | Percent | Cumulated percent |
| < 3 | 173 | 173 | 28,5% | 28,5% |
| 3-6 | 370 | 543 | 61,1% | 89,6% |
| > 6 | 63 | 606 | 10,4% | 100,0% |
| Paradox between precise, diligent and hard-work preparing of new ventures vs. amateur and dilatant looking for opportunities | | | | |
| Value | No of organizations | Cumulated N | Percent | Cumulated percent |
| < 3 | 134 | 134 | 22,1% | 22,1% |
| 3-6 | 421 | 555 | 69,5% | 91,6% |
| > 6 | 51 | 606 | 8,4% | 100,0% |
| Paradox between formulating strong vision 'from behind the desk' vs. building and using social networks | | | | |
| Value | No of organizations | Cumulated N | Percent | Cumulated percent |
| < 3 | 211 | 211 | 34,8% | 34,8% |
| 3-6 | 350 | 561 | 57,8% | 92,6% |

| | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|--------------------|----------------|--------------------------|
| > 6 | 45 | 606 | 7,4% | 100,0% |
| Paradox between building organizational structures for concentration and structures for relaxing | | | | |
| Value | No of organizations | Cumulated N | Percent | Cumulated percent |
| < 3 | 145 | 145 | 23,9% | 23,9% |
| 3-6 | 400 | 545 | 66,0% | 89,9% |
| > 6 | 61 | 606 | 10,1% | 100,0% |
| Average for all paradoxes reconciliation | | | | |
| Value | No of organizations | Cumulated N | Percent | Cumulated percent |
| < 3 | 121 | 121 | 20,0% | 20,0% |
| 3-6 | 440 | 561 | 72,6% | 92,6% |
| > 6 | 45 | 606 | 7,4% | 100,0% |

Source: own study

When each of the two dimensions of a given paradox are assessed as '7' on the seven-point Likert scale, we obtain a point with coordinates 7,7. The level of reconciliation of a given paradox is calculated as a distance (d) from this point, to the possible assessment (x,y). the formula for calculating this distance can be presented as follows:

$$d = \sqrt{(7 - x)^2 + (7 - y)^2}$$

This formula indicates, that the possible values of paradox reconciliation score between 0 (for the (7,7) assessment on a questionnaire) and 8.49 (for the statement assessment at (1,1)).

The obtained range (from 0 to 8.49) can be arbitrarily divided into three sub-ranges. The first one, with values below 3, can be defined as featuring organizations, which are capable of paradox reconciliation, and thus creative ones. The second sub-range, between 3 and 6, characterizes organizations that are not fully capable of paradox reconciliation, thus finding themselves in the state of strategic alertness. Values above 6 characterize organizations that are not able to reconcile the paradoxes of creative strategy, and therefore find themselves in the situation of strategic threat. Relatively high number of organizations is capable of fully reconciling the paradoxes. Only seven per cent of the organizations is facing strategic threat, and choosing extreme solutions instead of benefiting from two contradicting options at the same time.

Analysing the level of each paradox reconciliation of creative strategy closer, the research results show, that as far as innovativeness is concerned, 28.5% organizations deal with generating and discovering ideas at the same time. 61.1% face strategic alertness, while 10.4% concentrate only on discovering of the existing ideas. As far as strategic entrepreneurship is concerned, 22.1% organizations benefit from diligent venture planning and amateur opportunity seeking. 69.5% cannot fully experiment, improvise and diligently prepare projects at the same time; 8.4% organizations choose only formal planning or only improvising.

With the third dimension of creative strategy, as much as 35% of the researched organizations benefit from formulating strong vision 'from behind the desk' and building social networks outside organizations at the same time. 58% organizations are not able to do so, and only 7% choose just formulating vision, and managing without building networks. As far as design is concerned, every fourth organization manages the paradox of loose vs. concentrated structures, every tenth organization chooses extreme solutions.

The obtained results partially confirm Hypothesis 2 – organizations implement creative strategy through paradox reconciliation, however the level of reconciling paradoxes in the dimensions of creative strategy

is relatively low – majority of organizations cannot fully benefit from implementing opposing and contradicting solutions at the same time.

Dimensions of creative strategy and performance

In order to assess the relations between dimensions of creative strategy and performance, we used Kendall's Tau and Pearson correlation measures. For assessing performance, we decided to use three financial measures: return on sales (ROS), return on assets (ROA) and return on equity (ROE). We also used subjective, non-financial meta-measure of performance, based on the questionnaire developed by Antoncic and Hisrich (2003). The obtained values of correlations between creative strategy dimensions and performance are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Correlations between creative strategy dimensions and firm performance

| <i>Kendall tau correlations</i> | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|--|---|--|
| | Innovativeness | Entrepreneurship | Leadership | Creative design |
| ROS | -0.04 n=339 p=0.260 | -0.04 n=339 p=0.160 | -0.09 n=339 p=0.018 | -0.06 n=339 p=0.107 |
| ROA | 0.04 n=351 p=0.322 | 0.01 n=351 p=0.691 | -0.01 n=351 p=0.852 | -0.01 n=351 p=0.825 |
| ROE | -0.03 n=347 p=0.524 | -0.03 n=347 p=0.536 | -0.04 n=347 p=0.254 | -0.05 n=347 p=0.265 |
| ESUB | 0.24 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.22 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.19 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.22 n=606 p=0.000 |
| <i>Pearson's correlations</i> | | | | |
| | Innovativeness | Entrepreneurship | Leadership | Creative design |
| ROS | 0.01 n=339 p=0.846 | -0.00 n=339 p=0.960 | -0.16 n=339 p=0.004 | -0.04 n=339 p=0.483 |
| ROA | 0.04 n=351 p=0.440 | 0.03 n=351 p=0.562 | -0.04 n=351 p=0.475 | -0.02 n=351 p=0.673 |
| ROE | -0.01 n=347 p=0.961 | 0.01 n=347 p=0.672 | -0.03 n=347 p=0.524 | -0.03 n=347 p=0.788 |
| ESUB | 0.38 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.35 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.31 n=606 p=0.000 | 0.36 n=606 p=0.000 |

Source: own study

Statistically significant correlations are marked bold in Table 6. According to the results, one can say, that generally there is no correlation between dimensions of creative strategy and firm performance measured with financial measures. There is a negative, low, and statistically significant value of relation between strategic leadership and performance, meaning that with the level of leadership increasing, the sales figures go down.

Quite different results were obtained in the case of subjective, non-financial measures of performance. Generally speaking, with the increase of the level of creative strategy dimensions, performance measured with subjective measures increases, though the correlations are not high (Cohen, 1988, p. 109-115). The results are surprising, as they do not confirm theoretically found relations between creative strategy dimensions and tangible outcomes of the organizations. The explanation can be four-fold.

First, the researched organizations reluctantly present their financial results, being aware of the competitors. They also use different methods of accounting and booking the values, in order to sometimes influence the results in the short-term. Subjective assessment faces these obstacles. Second, the performance is influenced by many factors, not just dimensions of creative strategy. Our analyses have shown, that dimensions of creative strategy explain performance only in 18% of the variance. Third, dimensions of creative strategy are the pictures of dynamic processes taking place in organizations at present, while financial results are the static picture of the past. Using the same method (survey) for both creative strategy and performance addresses these differences. The above analysis partially rejects the hypothesis about relations between creative strategy and performance. There are statistically significant, but low correlations between creative strategy dimensions and performance measured with subjective, non-financial measures.

Conclusions

This paper attempted to look at the construct of creative strategy offered by Bilton and Cummings (2010). We tried to describe, and theoretically develop the dimensions of creative strategy, as well as operationalize them, test them empirically and link with firm performance.

The construct of creative strategy calls at revolutionizing the innovativeness. Instead of concentrating on the innovations themselves, organizations should analyse innovations as part of the more comprehensive strategic sequence that comprise selection of creative ideas, transforming promising ideas into innovations, and commercializing most marketable innovations through the process of strategic entrepreneurship. The proposed sequence has to be supported by proper strategic leadership and organizational design stimulating creativity at the organizational level.

The research carried out indicates, that the nature of creative strategy lies in its four dimensions: strategic innovativeness, strategic entrepreneurship, strategic leadership, and creative design of the organization. Factor analysis of the complete measurement scale that we developed, did not reduce any of the four dimensions of creative strategy, offered however some reconfigurations within the dimensions. Strategic innovativeness and strategic entrepreneurship dimensions formed one factor, which means that turning creative ideas into innovations and commercializing them on the market through exploring opportunities makes one sequence. It was interesting to see the emerging factor of teamwork building, which is based of building the climate of trust and less formal ways of visualizing strategy. It also seems, that for effective implementation of creative strategy, diligent planning and precise preparation of ventures and business projects is more important than uncoordinated looking for opportunities with improvisation and fun, which can only have a complementary effect on the process of strategic entrepreneurship.

The level of creative strategy dimensions is similar in the researched organizations. Strategic leadership obtained highest assessment, while strategic entrepreneurship scored lowest. It seems that the level of creative strategy dimensions does not depend on age, size or sector of activity, which makes the construct of creative strategy universal for all business organizations.

The results indicated that the researched organizations reconcile paradoxes of creative strategy on a satisfactory level. Majority of organizations find themselves in the strategic alertness, not being fully able to benefit from implementing opposing views at the same time. The research also shows that generally speaking, there are no relations between the dimensions of creative strategy and performance measured with financial measures. Only strategic leadership indicated some low negative relations with return on sales. There are, however low, but positive relations between dimensions of creative strategy and subjective, non-financial measures.

This study addresses the issues of organizational outcomes. We tried to shift the attention from the dependent variables, such as performance, competitive advantage, and financial outcomes, towards creativity. We posit, that instead of the managerial drive to concentrate on outcomes, organizations should look for the sources of outcomes – that is creative ideas born in organization. Only then, the

proper sequence presented here as creative strategy will be easily transformed into outcomes in the competitive, dynamic and complex environment.

For research purpose, this study addresses the various theoretical challenges that await those seeking to apply strategic management theory to the field of organizational creativity. Our efforts contribute to the literature in the following ways. First, the research extends organizational creativity theory by exploring the possibility of linking strategic management and the construct of creativity.

Second, the insights developed here advance strategic management literature by operationalizing the construct of creative strategy. Our general idea was to build a strategic management organization concept of creativity referring to whole organization, not forgetting about individuals as a source of creativity, which is the main focus of psychology, and where the traditional reference of creativity comes from. In this sense our perspective is more comprehensive than approaches used in prior studies mostly carried out from psychological and social viewpoint, while the lenses of strategic management and corporate entrepreneurship were largely ignored. This marks a departure from a substantial literature focusing on individual and team creativity.

While the described concept might yield new insights, further theoretical and empirical progress will ultimately be grounded in the substantial existing base of creativity in organizations and strategic management. Moreover, the results of this analysis suggest a need for further theoretical development of the underlying mechanisms which link organizational creativity with strategic management and firm performance.

Despite its limitations, our analysis takes stock of what is known, answers some questions in the organizational creativity and strategic management literature, and points out directions for future research. We believe that, for all the depth and scope of the literature, researchers have only begun to explore the challenges related to organizational creativity and its performance implications. Having further mapped the domain of organizational creativity, we hope future researchers study the dynamics associated with key relationships.

For practitioners, this paper has a very clear message: organizational creativity matters, and framing the creativity into the strategic sequence is vital. It is important to look for creative ideas, instead of focusing just on outcomes. What is more, creative organizations demand large investment commitments that people have to tolerate, as well as supportive resources, processes, and capabilities to be set. Nevertheless, empirical research is needed to better support these recommendations.

In conclusion, the present research takes a significant step forward and sheds some interesting light on the concept of creative strategy and its relationships with firm performance. It also calls for assessing the level of reconciling the contradictions in the process of formulating creative strategy. This research offers several key contributions, however, there are also a number of limitations and most of them highlight opportunities for further inquiry. Of course we are aware of the sample limitations, method limitations, and measures limitations. Perhaps a larger problem is the lack of consistency in measuring firm performance. Next, the idea of strategic innovativeness, and strategic entrepreneurship forms should be further developed. Special attention should be given to the assumption about relationships between innovativeness and performance in relations to other dimensions of creative strategy. Only then the call for revolutionizing innovativeness and including it in the strategic framework will be fully justified.

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An Evaluation of Critical Thinking Skills of Pre-Service Teachers

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Abstract

Critical thinking is an active and organized process in which we aim to understand ourselves and the events, circumstances and ideas around us by considering our own thoughts and those of the people we interact with (Özden, 2011, p. 160).

The most significant objective of education today is to train positive, creative and efficient individuals, who could adapt to different conditions, could think flexible open, free and scientifically. Thus, the purpose of the education redefined via new tendencies is reflected on the educational programs as well. One of the new tendencies highlighted in the new programs, without doubt, is the skill of “critical thinking.” Therefore, it is essential for the students in faculties of education, in other words the pre-service teachers, to be aware of these new tendencies and to comprehend the active role of teaching in the process.

This study scrutinized the critical thinking dispositions of faculty of education students. The study was conducted with 331 participants attending social studies teaching, sciences teaching, classroom teaching, pre-school teaching and primary school mathematics teaching departments in Firat University Faculty of Education in 2014-2015 academic year. The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) created as a result of Delphi project conducted by the American Philosophical Association in 1990 and adapted to Turkish by Doğan Kökdemir was used in the study. The results were analyzed using t-test and ANOVA in SPSS 17 software (Kökdemir, 2003, p. 68).

Introduction

In the modern world, having thinking skills is inevitable for an individual. Instead of solely based on exchange of information, instruction is significant in learning to think. Thus, modern schools attempt to train individuals who attain the skills of thinking, criticizing, producing, and knowing how to access information, instead of only teaching information and the product, and design educational programs that aim to train students to have thinking skills. Thinking is defined as making conclusions based on the existing information and going beyond the knowledge at hand. Presseisen considers the thinking skills in stages such as “basic operations, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking and creative thinking” (Akbiyık and Seferoğlu, 2015, p. 91).

Critical thinking is an active and organized process that aims to understand ourselves and the events, circumstances and ideas around us by considering our own thoughts and those of the people we interact with (Özden, 2011, p. 160). Critical thinking is not the equivalent of the concept of “criticism,” which could mean negative judgmental assessment. Critical thinking starts with self-criticism. Critical thinkers are aware of their thinking processes. They think about their own thoughts (Akpınar, 2010, p. 136). Critical thinking is different from solely thinking. It includes thinking about self-thoughts; it is meta-cognitive (Nosich, 2012, p. 3). Critical thinking is the art of analyzing and assessing the thoughts to improve them (Paul and Elder, 2006, p. 3).

According to Demirel, there are five main principles of critical thinking. These are;

- **Consistency:** The critical thinker should be able to resolve the inconsistencies within the thought.
- **Integration:** Critical thinker should consider all aspects of the thought.
- **Applicability:** The individual should be able to implement the things she or he understands and could understand on a model.
- **Efficiency:** Critical thinker should firmly conceptualize experiences and their consequences.

- **Ability to Communicate:** Critical thinker should be able to communicate her or his considerations to people around her or him as a combination with her or his thoughts (Demirel, 2012, p. 215).

Critical thinking is among the fundamental objectives and the most significant results of education (Gelder, 2001, p. 539). The objectives of critical thinking are analysis, assessment, deduction, judgment, and the explanation of theoretical, conceptual and methodological aspects of these (Facione, 1990, p. 2). Critical thinking does not only help fulfill one's self-realization. It also helps the healthy structuring of the society together with the individual (Gündoğdu, 2009, p. 58).

In APA studies conducted in 1992, the hypothesis that although the individuals possess critical thinking skills, they might not be able to use them properly was supported. Branch (2000) listed the seven characteristics that reveal the ability of individuals to utilize critical thinking skills as "being curious, open-minded, systematic, analytical, having intellectual maturity, and searching for the truth" (Akbiyık and Seferoğlu, 2006, p.195).

The most significant objective of education today is to train positive, creative and efficient individuals, who could adapt to different conditions, could think flexible open, free and scientifically. Thus, the purpose of the education redefined via new tendencies is reflected on the educational programs as well. Therefore, teachers of the future, students in the faculties of education should be aware of this new disposition and use the role of teaching efficiently. This study aimed to scrutinize the critical thinking dispositions of faculty of education students.

Methodology

In this section, information on the study design, the universe and the sample, data collection tool, and the collection and the analysis of data is presented.

Study Design

The study was conducted with the general survey model, one of the survey models available. General survey model is the method of surveying the universe or a group or sample taken from that universe to arrive at a general judgment on the universe that was composed of multiple elements (Karasar, 2003).

Universe and the Sample

The study was conducted with 331 participants attending social studies teaching, sciences teaching, classroom teaching, pre-school teaching and primary school mathematics teaching departments in Firat University Faculty of Education in 2014-2015 academic year. 227 of the participants were female, 104 were male students. 60 pre-service teacher participants were attending mathematics; 56, pre-school teaching; 71, classroom teaching; 64, social studies; and 71, sciences departments.

Data Collection Tool

The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) was created as a result of Delphi project conducted by the American Philosophical Association in 1990. The scale, originally composed of 7 factors, was then adapted to Turkish by Kökdemir and was transformed into a 6-factor scale as a result of the adaptation process. Sub-factors in Turkish adaptation are analytical-ness, open-mindedness, curiousness, self-confidence, search for the truth, and systematicity (Kökdemir, 2003, p. 68). The general theme reflected by these factors is presented below:

- a) **Analytical-ness:** It reflects an analytical disposition, careful against situations that could present problems, the ability of reasoning even under difficulties and utilizing objective evidences.
- b) **Open-Mindedness:** It expresses the tolerance of an individual against different approaches and sensitivity towards own mistakes.
- c) **Curiosity:** Curiosity or intellectual curiosity reflects the disposition of an individual to learn and to obtain information without and material benefits.
- d) **Self-Confidence:** It reflects the confidence an individual has on his or her reasoning process.
- e) **Searching for the Truth:** It assesses the disposition to evaluate alternatives or different ideas.
- f) **Systematicity:** It is the disposition to research in an organized, planned and attentive manner.

The items in the scale are scored between “1- I completely do not agree” and “6- I completely agree” (Kökdemir, 2003, p. 68).

Findings

The analysis of the findings were conducted on the total points in the scale based on the gender, department and the class attended variables. The analysis reflected no significant difference based on gender and department variables ($p > 0.05$). T-test was conducted for the class attended variable and the findings are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: T-test results on critical thinking dispositions of pre-service teachers based on class variable

| | Class Level | n | \bar{X} | Sd | t | p |
|-------|-------------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|------|
| CCTDI | Freshmen | 187 | 187,74 | 21,14 | 2,285 | ,023 |
| | Senior | 144 | 192,78 | 18,13 | | |

Table 1 demonstrates that the findings of the “critical thinking disposition scale” on the class level variable identified a significant difference between the freshmen ($\bar{X} = 187,74$) and seniors benefiting the senior participants ($\bar{X} = 192,78$).

The responses provided for the sub-factors of the scale were assessed based on the factors and findings are presented below in different tables, each table representing the findings based on a factor.

Table 2: T-test Results on Critical Thinking Dispositions of Pre-service Teachers Based on Gender

| CCTDI | Gender | n | \bar{X} | Sd | t | p |
|-------------------------|--------|-----|-----------|------|-------|------|
| Analytical-ness | Female | 227 | 30,44 | 4,49 | ,233 | ,816 |
| | Male | 104 | 30,31 | 4,62 | | |
| Open-Mindedness | Female | 227 | 22,34 | 4,12 | 2,192 | ,029 |
| | Male | 104 | 21,28 | 3,97 | | |
| Curiosity | Female | 227 | 20,63 | 3,56 | ,908 | ,365 |
| | Male | 104 | 21,00 | 3,45 | | |
| Self-Confidence | Female | 227 | 7,06 | 1,80 | 1,237 | ,217 |
| | Male | 104 | 6,80 | 1,65 | | |
| Searching for the Truth | Female | 227 | 21,89 | 3,58 | 0,048 | ,962 |
| | Male | 104 | 21,87 | 3,80 | | |
| Systematicity | Female | 227 | 20,97 | 3,81 | 2,440 | ,015 |
| | Male | 104 | 22,06 | 3,65 | | |

The analysis of the responses given to the scale based on the gender variable and sub-factors as displayed in Table 2 showed that there was no significant difference based on the “analytical-ness, self-confidence and searching for the truth” factors ($p > 0.05$). However, there was a significant difference in “open-mindedness” sub-factor between the females and males favoring the females ($\bar{X} = 22,34$). Also in “systematicity” sub-factor there was a significant difference between the males and females favoring the males ($\bar{X} = 22,06$).

Table 3: T-test Results on Critical Thinking Dispositions of Pre-service Teachers Based on the Class Level Variable

| CCTDI | Class Level | n | \bar{X} | Sd | t | p |
|-------------------------|-------------|-----|-----------|------|-------|------|
| Analytical-ness | Freshmen | 187 | 30,23 | 4,72 | ,756 | ,450 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 30,61 | 4,25 | | |
| Open-Mindedness | Freshmen | 187 | 21,66 | 4,34 | 1,776 | ,077 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 22,46 | 3,74 | | |
| Curiosity | Freshmen | 187 | 20,43 | 3,73 | 1,857 | ,064 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 21,15 | 3,21 | | |
| Self-Confidence | Freshmen | 187 | 6,95 | 1,74 | ,396 | ,692 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 7,03 | 1,78 | | |
| Searching for the Truth | Freshmen | 187 | 21,44 | 3,83 | 2,526 | ,012 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 22,45 | 3,30 | | |
| Systematicity | Freshmen | 187 | 20,79 | 3,84 | 2,900 | ,004 |
| | Seniors | 144 | 21,99 | 3,61 | | |

The analysis of the responses given to the “critical thinking disposition scale” based on the class level variable and sub-factors as displayed in Table 3 demonstrated that there was a significant difference based on the “searching for the truth” factor between the freshmen ($\bar{X} = 21,44$) and seniors favoring the senior participants ($\bar{X} = 22,45$). Also the findings on the “critical thinking disposition scale” based on the class level variable and “systematicity” sub-factor there was a significant difference between the freshmen ($\bar{X} = 20,79$) and seniors favoring the seniors ($\bar{X} = 21,99$).

Table 4: ANOVA Results on Critical Thinking Dispositions of Pre-service Teachers Based on the Department Variable

| CCTDI | Department | n | \bar{X} | Sd | f | p | tukey |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----|-----------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Open-Mindedness | 1-Social Studies T* | 64 | 20,55 | 4,27 | 3,55 | ,007* | 1-4* |
| | 2-Classroom T | 71 | 22,06 | 3,80 | | | |
| | 3-Sciences T | 71 | 22,20 | 4,00 | | | |
| | 4-Math T* | 69 | 23,18 | 4,05 | | | |
| | 5-Pre-school T | 56 | 21,93 | 4,12 | | | |
| | Total | 331 | | | | | |

Table 4 demonstrates that there was a significant difference between the critical thinking dispositions based on the “open-mindedness” sub-factor and the department variable as deduced from the responses given by pre-service teachers to the CCTDI and the ANOVA test conducted ($f=3,55$, $p=.007$). The Tukey test was conducted to determine between which departments there was a significant difference showed that there was a significant difference between the students attending social studies teaching ($\bar{X}=20,55$) and the students attending primary school mathematics teaching department ($\bar{X}=23,18$) favoring primary school mathematics teaching department.

Results

Findings of the study were analyzed for gender, department and the class levels attended on the total points of the scale. There were no significant differences for gender and department variables ($p > 0.05$). T-test conducted on the class attended variable demonstrated that senior grade participants had higher critical thinking dispositions when compared to freshmen participants. It could be stated as a result of this finding that educational programs are being implemented increasing the critical thinking dispositions and levels of the freshmen until they became seniors. The main purpose of the application of the scale on only freshmen and seniors was in fact to determine the effects of the educational programs implemented in the faculties of education on improvement of critical thinking levels of the students.

Responses given to the scale were assessed based on sub-factors as well and the findings were analyzed for the gender variable. The analysis showed that there was no significant difference based on “analytical-ness, curiosity, self-confidence and searching for the truth” factors. However, there was a significant difference in “open-mindedness” sub-factor between the females and males favoring the females. Based on these findings, females have more tolerance for different approaches and are more sensitive towards their own mistakes when compared to males. Also, there was a significant difference in “systematicity” sub-factor between the females and males favoring the males. Thus, it could be stated that males are more organized, planning and have a disposition for meticulous research.

The findings of the critical thinking disposition scale on “searching for the truth and systematicity” sub-factors based on the class-attended variable showed that there were significant differences between the freshmen and seniors favoring the senior participants ($\bar{X} = 94,64$). Thus, it could be concluded that the seniors are more organized, planning and have a higher disposition for evaluating different ideas than the freshmen.

There was a significant difference between the students attending social studies teaching ($\bar{X}=20,55$) and the students attending primary school mathematics teaching department ($\bar{X}=23,18$) favoring primary school mathematics teaching department based on “open-mindedness” sub-factor and the department variable in the ANOVA test conducted on critical thinking dispositions. Therefore, it could be stated that students attending primary school mathematics teaching department are more tolerant against different approaches and more sensitive for their own mistakes than the students attending social studies teaching department.

Finally, critical thinking is a desired goal of today’s educational programs. Only individuals who could use critical thinking efficiently in their lives have the critical thinking skills and disposition. Thus, only teachers with the same qualifications could help gain critical thinking skills and disposition. Therefore,

new tendencies in education such as critical thinking skills should be among the objectives of teacher training institutions and should form the basis of learning thinking skills.

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Health Insurance Case and Elder Policies in Thailand

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Abstract

Purpose -The purpose of this paper is to analyze health insurance plans for senior buyers, and elders health policy in Thailand, and the response of Thai government in terms of public policy and social welfare for the large and growing number of elders in Thailand.

Design/methodology/approach-Using the case research method, the research examined health insurance plans and health policy for senior citizens in Thailand and also elder insurance buyers who purchased health insurance for their own benefit and life precautions. In total 20 elder health insurance buyers were interviewed and common themes were categorized in order to explain the reason in selecting health insurance plans and benefits of the public health policy from Thailand's governance for senior citizens. **Findings** -Extending the body of knowledge from exiting research, this study found that there are six themes in the case of health insurance and elder policies in Thailand. They are 1) benefits of buying health insurance, 2) reasonable price, 3) PR and commercials, 4) services and insurance broker, 5) group references, and 6) public policies and government supports. The results show that these elders in Thailand bought health insurance for their own health benefits that public policy has not covered and matters which supported and some elders to avoid being a burden to their descendants. Additionally, insurance buyers bought health insurance by way of media driven and insurance broker hospitality.

Originality/value - Students can learn what drives insurance buyers to consider buying health insurance in Thailand and how Thai Government formulated public policies and social welfare to supports a growing elder population in Thailand.

Keywords: insurance company/insurance broker/ insurance buyer

Introduction

In health matters, Thai elder is becoming large population in Thailand. There are support of a private clinic, private hospital and private medical institute but this could lead to million baht bill payment in Thailand. Insurance policies in Thailand are usually only valid for a limited certain of regulations. Legal health insurance policies are not generally cover protection outside of Thailand.

Table 1: Numbers of elderly in whole kingdom

Table 1 Number of the elderly by sex, province, area and region

| จังหวัด และภาค | รวม Total | | | ในเขตเทศบาล Municipal Area | | | นอกเขตเทศบาล Non-municipal Area | | | ดัชนีการสูงอายุ ^{1/} Aging index ^{1/} | Province and region |
|-----------------|------------|-----------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------------------------|-----------|-----------|--|---------------------|
| | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | | |
| | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | | |
| ทั่วราชอาณาจักร | 10,014,705 | 4,514,815 | 5,499,890 | 4,097,963 | 1,821,569 | 2,276,394 | 5,916,742 | 2,693,246 | 3,223,496 | 82.6 | Whole Kingdom |

Source: The 2014 survey of the older persons in Thailand, National office Ministry of Information and communication technology

Elder population can also arrange a Thai health insurance. The elder considers to pay for the advance fee in order to cover treatment of serious illnesses in a private hospital. There is also possible that the insurance company cancels the policy from their side or refuses to renew the policy for clients who are age beyond the signed contract and cause suffering from a cost intensive illness. In insurance contracts, it is especially indicated that the renewal of the contract is guaranteed up to 70 years old. The unaware of contract create difficulties for insurance holder. However, many of Thai insurance companies start offering an alternative plan for insurance protection with a lifelong protection warranty that is allowing the flexibility for the elder in the other way around it create more expensive annual rates.

Table 2: Numbers of Thai population

Table 2 Number and percentage of population, number and percentage of the elderly, the elderly rate by sex, region and area

| ภาค และเขตการปกครอง | จำนวนประชากรทั้งสิ้น Number of population | | | ร้อยละของประชากร Percentage of population | | | จำนวนประชากรสูงอายุ Number of the elderly | | | ร้อยละของประชากรสูงอายุ Percentage of the elderly | | | อัตราร้อยละของประชากรสูงอายุ ^{1/} The elderly rate ^{1/} | | | Region and area |
|------------------------|--|------------|------------|--|------|--------|--|-----------|-----------|--|------|--------|--|------|--------|---------------------|
| | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | รวม | ชาย | หญิง | |
| | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | |
| ทั่วราชอาณาจักร | 66,995,226 | 32,736,246 | 34,258,980 | 100.0 | 48.9 | 51.1 | 10,014,705 | 4,514,815 | 5,499,890 | 100.0 | 45.1 | 54.9 | 14.9 | 13.8 | 16.1 | Whole Kingdom |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 29,795,812 | 14,399,150 | 15,396,662 | 100.0 | 48.3 | 51.7 | 4,097,963 | 1,821,569 | 2,276,394 | 100.0 | 44.5 | 55.5 | 13.8 | 12.7 | 14.8 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | 37,199,414 | 18,337,096 | 18,862,318 | 100.0 | 49.3 | 50.7 | 5,916,742 | 2,693,246 | 3,223,496 | 100.0 | 45.5 | 54.5 | 15.9 | 14.7 | 17.1 | Non-municipal Area |
| กรุงเทพมหานคร | 8,563,548 | 4,154,521 | 4,409,027 | 100.0 | 48.5 | 51.5 | 942,586 | 412,760 | 529,826 | 100.0 | 43.8 | 56.2 | 11.0 | 9.9 | 12.0 | Bangkok |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 8,563,548 | 4,154,521 | 4,409,027 | 100.0 | 48.5 | 51.5 | 942,586 | 412,760 | 529,826 | 100.0 | 43.8 | 56.2 | 11.0 | 9.9 | 12.0 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | Non-municipal Area |
| ภาคกลาง | 19,034,078 | 9,320,156 | 9,713,922 | 100.0 | 49.0 | 51.0 | 2,561,881 | 1,132,330 | 1,429,551 | 100.0 | 44.2 | 55.8 | 13.5 | 12.2 | 14.7 | Central Region |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 8,703,692 | 4,218,874 | 4,484,818 | 100.0 | 48.5 | 51.5 | 1,109,864 | 488,265 | 621,599 | 100.0 | 44.0 | 56.0 | 12.8 | 11.6 | 13.9 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | 10,330,386 | 5,101,282 | 5,229,104 | 100.0 | 49.4 | 50.6 | 1,452,017 | 644,065 | 807,952 | 100.0 | 44.4 | 55.6 | 14.1 | 12.6 | 15.5 | Non-municipal Area |
| ภาคเหนือ | 11,514,836 | 5,618,407 | 5,896,429 | 100.0 | 48.8 | 51.2 | 2,117,550 | 977,353 | 1,140,197 | 100.0 | 46.2 | 53.8 | 18.4 | 17.4 | 19.3 | Northern Region |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 3,994,286 | 1,908,415 | 2,085,871 | 100.0 | 47.8 | 52.2 | 729,183 | 331,355 | 397,828 | 100.0 | 45.4 | 54.6 | 18.3 | 17.4 | 19.1 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | 7,520,550 | 3,709,992 | 3,810,558 | 100.0 | 49.3 | 50.7 | 1,388,367 | 645,998 | 742,369 | 100.0 | 46.5 | 53.5 | 18.5 | 17.4 | 19.5 | Non-municipal Area |
| ภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ | 18,781,199 | 9,156,494 | 9,624,705 | 100.0 | 48.8 | 51.3 | 3,192,932 | 1,454,036 | 1,738,896 | 100.0 | 45.5 | 54.5 | 17.0 | 15.9 | 18.1 | Northeastern Region |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 5,487,134 | 2,647,299 | 2,839,835 | 100.0 | 48.3 | 51.8 | 923,365 | 416,409 | 506,956 | 100.0 | 45.1 | 54.9 | 16.8 | 15.7 | 17.9 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | 13,294,065 | 6,509,195 | 6,784,870 | 100.0 | 49.0 | 51.0 | 2,269,567 | 1,037,627 | 1,231,940 | 100.0 | 45.7 | 54.3 | 17.1 | 15.9 | 18.2 | Non-municipal Area |
| ภาคใต้ | 9,101,565 | 4,486,668 | 4,614,897 | 100.0 | 49.3 | 50.7 | 1,199,756 | 538,336 | 661,420 | 100.0 | 44.9 | 55.1 | 13.2 | 12.0 | 14.3 | Southern Region |
| ในเขตเทศบาล | 3,047,152 | 1,470,041 | 1,577,111 | 100.0 | 48.2 | 51.8 | 392,965 | 172,780 | 220,185 | 100.0 | 44.0 | 56.0 | 12.9 | 11.8 | 14.0 | Municipal Area |
| นอกเขตเทศบาล | 6,054,413 | 3,016,627 | 3,037,786 | 100.0 | 49.8 | 50.2 | 806,791 | 365,556 | 441,235 | 100.0 | 45.3 | 54.7 | 13.3 | 12.1 | 14.5 | Non-municipal Area |

1/ อัตราร้อยละของประชากรสูงอายุ = จำนวนประชากรสูงอายุ x 100
จำนวนประชากรทั้งสิ้น

1/ The elderly rate = Number of the elderly x 100
Number of population

Source: The 2014 survey of the older persons in Thailand, National office Ministry of Information and communication technology

Government-funded care

In 2001, the Thai insurance system has improved the introduction of universal health that could cover the fee that the former system might not be able to cover. The elders are fairly charged at the lowest rate and the small amount is collected by government in term of commitment that hospital would like the patient to have. The private insurance companies have gone large number of open-up new insurance plan for elder and to return the benefit to the existing customer. Also the people buy the insurance for their tax deduction and they can use the benefit of buying the insurance for their health protection and recovery.

Method

In –depth interview

The in-depth interview was conducted with 10 participants. The researcher used detailed verbatim methods to compare and contrast the results. Combining this data with those from questionnaires, the result should be clearer. Semi-structured interviewing, according to Bernard (1988), is best used when researcher would like to have more chance to interview participants, and when researcher is in the field to randomly collect data. The semi-structured interview guide provides a clear set of instructions for interviewers and can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data.

Participants had been selected from in Bangkok metropolitan areas from various background. The criteria of participants (a) elder who buy the health insurance, and (b) elders who are going to buy insurance. The inquiry was permitted within 20 minutes of prompting question (and its answer). The participants' responses were recorded on voice recorder for accurate recall of all the details of their sound, words, and any gesturer of the participants.

The interview protocol contained this study found out that there are five themes for case of Health Insurance and Elder policies in Thailand. They are benefits of buying health insurance, reasonable price, PR and commercials, services and insurance broker, group references, Public policies and Government supports. On the basic interview protocol, participants were asked to describe in detail about the Thailand Elder policy and how they decided to buy health insurance. Also the interviewer will be ask to explain about Thailand insurance policy benefit that they can received from buying insurance.

Research Procedure

The participants signed an informed consent for that detailed the expectations of the researcher and their voluntary agreement to participate in this study. Participants were asked to introduce themselves, and then response to following question from potential areas, afterward. The interview took place in Bangkok metropolitan areas, Thailand.

Data Analysis Procedure

1. The literature review and this research's assumption about Health Insurance case and Elder Policies in Thailand were reviewed prior to data analysis.
2. The protocol was read for sense of the whole, and then was separated into their "meaning units".
3. In order to minimize any error, researcher has tried to ask the precise questions and the language needed to be simple for all of the sample.
4. A situated structure (summary statement Health Insurance case and Elder Policies in Thailand) was created for each participants.
5. All situated structures were then clustered into commonly-occurring themes to create one general structure.
6. The situated structures were also divided into two groups-female and male elder to determine if there were any differences that emerged from the data.
7. Step 6 will be repeated for major differences, if there are sufficient major differences in the participant's pool.
8. The result (situated structure and general structure) is presented in Result and Discussion part.

Result

The interview has categorized the personal data with the questions from the research (Participant, Sex, Age, Years of using Motor cycle, Residence, Factors influencing, consumers' purchasing intention). This table illustrates the common data set, various factors and Health Insurance case and Elder Policies in Thailand

| Participant | Sex | Age | Residence | Government Policies | Benefits |
|-------------|-----|-----|-----------|---------------------|--------------|
| P1 | F | 65 | BKK | Yes | Price |
| P2 | M | 59 | BKK | Yes | PR |
| P3 | M | 62 | BKK | Yes | Service |
| P4 | F | 45 | BKK | No | Agent |
| P5 | M | 49 | BKK | Yes | Agent |
| P6 | M | 62 | BKK | Yes | Govt support |
| P7 | F | 47 | BKK | Yes | Service |
| P8 | M | 46 | BKK | Yes | Personal |
| P9 | M | 51 | BKK | Yes | Govt support |
| P10 | F | 55 | BKK | Yes | Govt support |

Data interpretation by using common theme

In this section, the research finding described about and Health Insurance case and Elder Policies in Thailand. There are five themes for this case, there are reasonable price, PR and commercials, services and insurance broker, group references, Public policies and Government supports.

There are explained below

1. Reasonable price

As the saving that they have for their daily life basis, they tend to buy the low cost of insurance plan to cover the fundamental basic treatment for their life.

2. PR and commercials

Buying Insurance, they have received the substantial information from TV and video that they have experience it every day. This media had led them to the brand that they believe they can have benefit from.

3. Services and insurance broker

Consumer buy the product that they have already used and they are prefer to have the same brand. Yet the service agent and insurance broker are close to the customer, so they have use the ways of communication to share the knowledge of the product and convince elders to buy the insurance from them. They also use word of mouth and strategy of acquaintance to make friend and ask them to buy product from trusted friends.

4. Group references

In media, Insurance companies have use the former celebrities and well known person (in generation X) to be brand ambassador.

5. Public policies and Government supports

Thai government has made the policies that can benefit to large elder population and provide funding from government to public hospital to subsidy the health and insurance protection plan for elders. Generally, it would cover the basis treatment and assist elders to functionally stay healthy for their life.

Conclusion and Recommendation

It appears that influencers that drive consumer to choose health insurance for their health protection and how Thai policy has response to the society of growing number of elder. Health Insurance product has changed significantly over time due to the needs of the market. In addition to that, the

insurance companies are recommend to look at the discount policy and warranty factors to attract the elder insurance holder to buy their product. Lastly, health insurance companies should have their own agents and representatives that can educate prospective and adapt their insurance plan with Thai health polies and being able to capture and respond to the emerging market now a day.

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An Investigation of the Alignment between 8th Grade Math Curriculum, Textbooks, Workbook and TEOG Exam

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This study aims to investigate the alignment between 8th grade mathematics curriculum, textbook, workbook and the TemelEğitimdenOrtaöğretimeGeçiş (TEOG) exam. To fulfill this purpose 8th grade curriculum's objectives, textbook, workbook and TEOG exam's mathematics questions were compared. The TEOG exam is centrally administered at the end of first and second semester exams in all secondary schools in Turkey. Secondary school students are placed in high schools based on TEOG results. In this study qualitative research methods of document analysis were used. The Survey of Enacted Curriculum (SEC) Model was used in this study. Translation and reflection, fractal, exponential numbers, probability and statistics, and square root numbers topics in the 8th grade mathematics curriculum were examined in this study. 294 questions on these topics were analyzed. The study topics were determined by considering the content of TEOG mathematics test that was applied at the end of the first semester. Analysis was carried out by researchers. The first researcher is associate professor in the field of mathematics education, the second researcher has undergraduate degree in mathematics teaching and is a Ph.D. student in curriculum and instruction, and the last researcher has undergraduate degree in mathematics and a mathematics Ph.D.

Results are evaluated in general; textbook and workbook show more alignment than others. Curriculum is the most aligned with the workbook. The 8th grade mathematics curriculum can be said to have low alignment with other elements. TEOG exam and textbook is the lowest alignment. In this case, considering the importance of centralized exams in Turkey and the impact of textbooks on student learning, this finding is important. As a result curriculum may be alignment with textbook and workbook, and when preparing the TEOG exam, curriculum should be kept in mind more.

Key words: curriculum alignment, mathematics, SEC Model

The education system is one of the most important indicators of a country's development level. The basic components of teaching and learning are teacher, student and curriculum. The curriculum has four components; objectives, content, teaching and learning situations and assessment and evaluation. Objectives are attributes which the students are expected to acquire in the end of course. Content is what to teach on the course. Teaching and learning situations are the answer to the question how to teach. Assessment and evaluation is to determine whether the students have won requested attributes (Demirel, 2011). Student's scores provide data that can be gained about the success of the curriculum. Turkey's success in mathematics is provoking national and international exams. For example, the rank of Turkey in TIMSS 2011 is 24 in 42 country and Turkey's average scale score is under the TIMSS's average scale score (Büyüköztürk, Çakan, Tan ve Atar, 2014). Also TEOG exam mathematics test average of the students is 2,35 (MEB, 2009).

On the other hand, The Ministry of Education has made fundamental changes in the curriculum. Firstly, primary level curriculum was changed at the 2004 – 2005 academic year. Curriculum content was reduced, thematic approach was adopted and some learning areas were identified (MEB, 2011). How

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many of these changes are applied? If the curriculum is not be feasible, the reasons should be investigated. The answers to these questions provide the necessary data to determine the success of the curriculum. The curriculum alignment concept can be described as written, taught and tested curriculum in accordance with each other. Curriculum and textbook constitute written curriculum. Instruction and lesson plans constitute taught curriculum. Standardized tests, curriculum embedded tests and student assignments constitute tested curriculum (Squires, 2009).

There are different models that examined the curriculum alignment in the literature. These models generally focuses on alignment with each other in the central exam and curriculum's objectives. One such model is the Survey of Enacted Curriculum Model. This model was developed by Porter and Smithson. The purpose of the development of this model is to enable teachers to see the connections between what they teach and what they evaluate. Quantitative data are collected on objectives, assessment and evaluation situation and instruction in this model. Common content template is used in the analysis. All topics are listed from elementary up to high school. All topics should be divided into small units as much as it can. Then objectives, test items and instruction are coded considering this list and also cognitive demand (Martone & Sireci, 2009). In this model, five cognitive level are determined for mathematics. These five cognitive levels are Memorize (B), Perform Procedure (C), Demonstrate Understanding (D), Conjecture, generalize, prove (E) and Solve non-routine problems, make connections (F). Each question in the test is analyzed. Teachers and subject matter experts can take part in the coding process (Blank, Porter & Smithson, 2001).

In this model, role of the experts is to analyze the objective and test's questions taking into account the content cognitive level in the matrix. After this coding process, the following alignment index formula which is developed by Porter (2002), is used.

$$\text{Alignment} = 1 - \frac{\sum_i |x_i - y_i|}{2}$$

The i have changed 1 to number of cell in common content matrix. In this formula x_i denotes i . cell proportion in one matrix (eg: table which analyzed objective) and y_i denotes i . cell proportion in another matrix (eg: table which analyzed central exam's questions). This index takes values ranging from .0 to 1.0. This index helps to identify gaps between objectives, assessment and evaluation and instruction (Martone & Sireci, 2009). This formula has used several research (Polikoff, Porter, & Smithson, 2011; Porter, Polikoff & Smithson, 2009). These studies have concluded that this formula is reliable formula. There are three dimensions in the SEC Model: content match, expectations for student performance and instructional content.

Content Match: At this stage the topic list are prepared across the K-12 level. One disadvantage of this stage is that the number of topics is much higher. However consensus of all content is provided. The results can be reported at fine or coarse-grain level. The results of content match allows to obtain accurate information about the changes in curriculum and instruction (Martone & Sireci, 2009).

Expectations for student performance: The objectives, instruction and items in the measuring tools are coded based on expectations for student performance. As stated above five cognitive level are used in this model. This five cognitive level is determined by behavioral approach. For this reason this cognitive level does not show a hierarchical structure. Also this classification aimed at helping teachers describes the knowledge and skills required for students (Porter & Smithson, 2002). The same cognitive level should be used in the analysis. Analyzing the objectives, instruction and items in the measuring tools in terms of the cognitive level allow comparison of instruction to objectives and assessment (Martone & Sireci, 2009).

Instructional Content: Unlike the other alignment models, The SEC model includes measurements about the instructional content. It is known that instructional content is effective on the student's achievement. Through this stage, teachers code the instructional content according to the preselected objectives and a specific time period. Then this code process, the teachers estimate the distribution of the topics on cognitive levels. This analysis can be used to determine the proportion of each topic relative to the total instructional time (Porter & Smithson, 2002).

This model gives information about the extent to which objectives and assessment take into account in the teaching and learning situations. The benefit of this model is that it allows data collection from large number of respondents and it is inexpensive according to the daily logs or classroom observations (Martone & Sireci, 2009).

This study aims to investigate the alignment between 8th grade mathematics curriculum, textbook, workbook and TemelEğitimdenOrtaöğretimeGeçiş (TEOG) exam. To fulfill this purpose 8th grade curriculum's objectives, textbook, workbook and TEOG exam's mathematics questions were compared. TEOG exam is a centrally administered at the end of first and second semester exam in all secondary schools in Turkey. Secondary school students are placed on high school based on TEOG results. In this study qualitative research methods of document analysis were used. Also SEC Model was used in this study.

Translation and reflection, fractal, exponential numbers, probability and statistics and square root numbers topics were examined in this study. 20 objectives in the 8th grade math curriculum, 98 questions in the textbook, 149 questions in the workbook, 20 questions in the first TEOG exam and related to the determined topics of 7 questions in the second TEOG exam, the sum of 294 questions on these topics were analyzed. The study topics were determined by considering the content of TEOG mathematics test that was applied at the end of the first semester. Analysis was carried out by researchers. One of the researchers is associate professor in the field of mathematics education, other is undergraduate degree in mathematics teachers and Ph.D. student in curriculum and instruction and other undergraduate degree in mathematics and mathematics Ph.D.

3. Findings

The distribution of the cognitive level of 20 objectives in the curriculum, 98 questions in the textbook, 149 questions in the workbook and 27 questions in the TEOG exams is shown on table 1.

Table 1: *The Distribution of Objectives in the Curriculum and, Textbook, Workbook and TEOG Exam Questions*

| | Curriculum | | | | | Textbook | | | | | Workbook | | | | | TEOG Exam | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|---|---|---|---|----------|----|---|---|---|----------|----|---|----|---|-----------|----|---|---|---|
| | B | C | D | E | F | B | C | D | E | F | B | C | D | E | F | B | C | D | E | F |
| Translation and Reflection | | 2 | | | | 3 | 12 | | | | | 17 | | | | | 2 | | | |
| Fractal | | | | | 1 | | 2 | | 7 | 1 | | 5 | | 17 | 2 | | | | | 1 |
| Exponential Numbers | | 4 | | | | 4 | 39 | 3 | 1 | | 2 | 43 | 4 | | | | 7 | 2 | | |
| Probability and Statistics | | 2 | 4 | | | | 23 | 2 | | | | 39 | 4 | | | | | | | |
| Square Root Numbers | | 6 | 1 | | | | 32 | 2 | | | 1 | 44 | 5 | | | | 14 | 1 | | |

The ratio of distribution of cognitive level of the curriculum objectives and questions of the textbook, workbook and TEOG exam is shown on table 2.

Table 2: *The Ratio of Distribution of Objectives in the Curriculum and, Textbook, Workbook and TEOG Exam Questions*

| | Curriculum | | | | | Textbook | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|-----|------|---|------|----------|------|------|------|------|
| | B | C | D | E | F | B | C | D | E | F |
| Translation and Reflection | | 0,1 | | | | 0,02 | 0,09 | | | |
| Fractal | | | | | 0,05 | | 0,02 | | 0,05 | 0,01 |
| Exponential Numbers | | 0,2 | | | | 0,03 | 0,30 | 0,02 | 0,01 | |
| Probability and Statistics | | 0,1 | 0,2 | | | | 0,18 | 0,02 | | |
| Square Root Numbers | | 0,3 | 0,05 | | | | 0,24 | 0,02 | | |

Table 2 Continued

| | Workbook | | | | | TEOG Exam | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------|------|------|------|------|-----------|------|------|------|---|
| | B | C | D | E | F | B | C | D | E | F |
| Translation and Reflection | | 0,09 | | | | | 0,07 | | | |
| Fractal | | 0,03 | | 0,09 | 0,01 | | | | 0,04 | |
| Exponential Numbers | 0,01 | 0,23 | 0,02 | | | | 0,26 | 0,07 | | |
| Probability and Statistics | | 0,21 | 0,02 | | | | | | | |
| Square Root Numbers | 0,01 | 0,24 | 0,03 | | | | 0,52 | 0,04 | | |

According to this data curriculum with textbook alignment index is 0,63, curriculum with workbook alignment index is 0,69 and curriculum with TEOG exam alignment index 0,61. The textbook with workbook alignment index is 0,81. Also TEOG exam with textbook alignment index is 0,55 and TEOG exam and workbook alignment is 0,64.

4. Results and Discussion

When the findings were generally analyzed, textbook and workbook are highly align. Because the textbook and workbook were developed by the Ministry of Education, it can be said that this finding was expected. The curriculum is the most aligned with the workbook. Comparison of written and tested curriculum components revealed that there is no high harmony. In this situation, teachers may have a problem as to how they implement the curriculum. Because this curriculum was implemented in 2004 – 2005 academic year, furthermore TEOG exam has implemented since 2013 – 2014 academic year. According to Remillard and Geist (2002) when teachers apply innovation, they need professional support. TEOG exam is the lowest aligned with the textbook. The curriculum is the second lowest aligned with TEOG exam. Considering the importance of central exam in Turkey (Süer&Altun, 2015) and the impact of textbooks on student learning, this finding is important. The reason for the low index values obtained for the pairs of the curriculum, textbook, workbook and TEOG exam may be the inconsistency between the cognitive levels of objectives and questions or lack of questions corresponding to some objectives. For example; the objective “calculates the probability of dependent and independent events” is not measured in the TEOG exam. As another example for the objective “Builds, draws a pattern of line, polygons and circles models and determine which of these is a fractal pattern” there is no question in the textbook. Birinci (2014) analyzed TEOG exam’s math question and reached similar conclusion.

5. Recommendations

According to the results of this study;

1. When preparing the TEOG exam, the textbook and the workbook should be kept in mind more than the curriculum.
2. This study is a small study. All 8th grade math topics should be analyzed.
3. In this study SEC model was used only, studies using different models will provide contributions for methodology.
4. Only documents (the curriculum, textbook, and workbook) were analyzed in this study. Besides the documents, curriculum implementation can also be included for future studies.

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The Classroom Justice Perceptions of High School Students

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Abstract

The purpose of this study to determine classroom justice perceptions of high school students in terms of their experiences in the classroom. Classroom is a learning environment in which a multi dimensional interaction takes place as well as the teaching procedures being held. The students are searching for justice in the classroom where they spend most of their time. This study aims to examine the justice in terms of classrom environment and determine the variables which affect the classroom justice perceptions of high school students with the difference of the studies which studied justice in terms of organizational level.

In this study cross sectional survey model was conducted for the purpose of the research. The Scale named Classroom Justice Perceptions of Students was developed by the researcher after the related literature survey is completed. The questionnaire was carried out by the 486 high school students stuyding in the 2014-2015 educational year in Kocaeli. The sample of the survey was choosen according to the ramdom sampling model. The data gathered through the questionnaire was analysed with the “IBM SPSS Statistics 20” package programme. The fact that the data showed non-parametric range Kolmogorov –Smirnov test was employed. The classroom justice is investigated the dimensions of distributive, procedural, interactional and awarding justice in terms of the variables such as school type, gender, class level, academic success, mother and father education level, family income level, and attendance to social activities. According to the results of the study there is a meaningful difference between the justice perceptions of students and school type also class level. The results showed that awarding justice is high in Vocational and Technical High Schools, procedural justice is low in Science High Schools, distrubutive justice is low in Vocational School for Girls. In terms class level, 9 th grade students perceptions of justice is higher than the other class levels. The results indicated that there is no meaningful difference between classroom justice perception and mother-father education level, gender and family income level.

Keywords: Justice, classroomjustice, proceduraljustice, distributive justice, interactional justice.

Introduction

The history of the justice concept dates back to the history of the humanity (Çakmak, 2005:19). The concept of justice which dates back to the history of the humanity has interested many scholars over years. Scholars from Aristo to Nozik and Rawls had studied this concept (Greenberg ve Bies,1992; Akt Özmen, Arsak ve Özer,2007:19).

People are searching for justice in each environment they take place and this search for justice has become an indespansable part of their lives. Justice is the fundamental virtue of the all social institutions. People need justice in anywhere they live (Töremen ve Tan, 2010:59).

The school is certainly one of the fundamental institutions of society where exchanges and relations are within the experience of almost everyone and constitute a significant aspect of human interaction. For children, school is likely to be the most important arena of their experience of socialization (Çelikkaya,2008: 23). The perception of justice appears to be a significant factor for an individual to be able to adapt to the school community as a student. Therefore students who internalized the concept of

justice by means of their school experiences will contribute to the school in the short term and to the society in the long term (Çelikkaya, 2008: 4).

Classroom justice theorizing and research, including the three-dimensional conceptualization and measures of distributive, procedural, and interactional fairness, were originally based on organizational behavior and industrial/organizational psychology theory and research (Chory-Assad, 2002; Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004b).

Studies in recent years show us how students perceive and react when they experience justice and injustice in the classroom. The purpose of this study is to determine the students' perceptions of fairness in terms of their classroom experiences. Classroom is a learning environment in which a multi-dimensional interaction takes place as well as teaching activities being held.

1. The Concept of Justice

The passion for the justice is the most ancient passion of people and the question "what is justice?" is one of the ancient questions of philosophy (Kuçuradi, 2001: 39). People have tried to define the concept of justice with different points of view over the centuries but the concept of justice isn't exactly defined yet. According to Özkalp ve Kirel (2004: 235) justice is defined as being impartial and open-minded, accepting faults, changing beliefs and positions appropriately, displaying loyalty to the judiciary, treating individuals equally, not taking advantage of other people's faults and deficiencies. Moreover, Demirtaş and Güneş (2002: 2) defined the justice as giving the participants their rights according to their contributions to the organization and giving them punishments when they do not obey the rules.

On the basis of Çeçen's (1993:20) statement of justice, there is value judgment. Justice is an ethic value and it depends on the people's and societies' ethic understanding. The understanding of ethics changes according to time and societies for this reason it changes the content of the justice indirectly. Equality is the other concept we encounter when justice is in the question. Equality is one of the important elements of justice which means treating the people equally (Güriz, 2001: 14).

As it is concluded from the definitions above there is no exact definition of justice. Because of the fact that the concept of the justice changes according to the judgment values and it is a relative concept, justice cannot be defined exactly. People can understand justice better when they encounter with an injustice situation.

2. Organizational Justice

Başaran (2000) organization is an open system formed by people who are working voluntarily and systematically to achieve the set of aims for fulfilling the needs of society. It is worth to study the concept of justice in terms of organizational level because people look for justice in each platform they are in like family, school, friend groups, workplace (Karameinoğulları, 2006).

Organizational justice is a term gained the importance with the perceptions of employees about how fairly they are treated in the work place and the effects of these perceptions to individual and organizational results. It is important to have employees who are satisfied and happy with their job and have high performance for the organizations (Irak, 2004: 40). If employees think that people have fair behaviors in the organization and benefits are distributed fairly and there is no discrimination between equal people organizational justice perception develops positively (Iscan & Naktiyok, 2004).

2.1 Dimensions of Organizational Justice

Based on the studies about organizational justice, generally organizational justice has three main dimensions as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice.

2.1.1 Distributive justice

The first distributive justice theory goes back to Aristo and his categorization of distributive and reformative justice is still keeps its validity. According to Adam's Equality Theory which formed the structure of the distributive justice, if the employees make the same amount of contributions to the organization and in return the benefits of the employees are not equal with the others' are in the same position, the ones who get unequally more benefit and payment feel guilty and the ones who get less payment feel angry (Cited: Greenberg, 1990:400). The inequality in terms of distributive justice affects the employees in the organization negatively. If the employees feels the injustice in the organization this situation affects their performance, and their decisions about quitting the job or continuing work for the organization (Özdevecioğlu, 2004). Besides the distribution the sources benefits, the distribution of rewards and punishments are also crucial in terms of distributive justice. It is also important to know how the decisions are made while distributing the benefits so at this point procedural justice gain importance (Greenberg, 1997).

2.1.2 Procedural Justice

While distributive justice focuses on the justice of the decisions made in an organization, procedural justice focuses on the justice of the processes while making this decisions. Procedural justice is the idea of fairness in the processes that resolve disputes and allocate resources. Procedural justice concerns the fairness and the transparency of the processes by which decisions are made and it reflects the employees' perceptions of justice in terms of the processes in which they get rewards, promotions and payment (Altıntaş, 2007: 152).

According to Greenberg (1990:409-411) there are three main factors that affect the procedural justice perceptions of employees; the objectivity of the decision making process, having trust to the ones who have the authority to make decisions and having relations based on respect, trust, positive intents and cooperation.

The results of the studies show that when employees believe that their employers make unfair decisions, they show less commitment to their employers, they intend more to commit a theft, they have a strong desire to change their job, they show low performance and they are less eager to cooperate. Employees care about how they are treated and this treatment affects their relations with their employers (Folger ve Cropanzano, 1998; cited: Yıldırım 2003:377).

Levental (1980) there are six main rules affect the justice perceptions in an organization (Cited: Titrek, 2009a):

- a) consistency: distribution decisions in organizations should be consistent. Consistent leadership behavior is a necessary condition for employee perceptions of fairness.
- b) do not become prejudiced: with respect to distribution or process, do not become prejudiced against employees of the organization.
- c) accuracy: in an organization, information should be handled accurately and honestly.
- d) correction: employees should be given a right to object or correct wrong decisions made by managers. Faulty or poor decisions should be corrected as well.
- e) representative: decision-making processes that affect employees should include representatives from them and they should attend the process in the organization.
- f) ethics: decision-making processes should reflect the ethical values of the employees.

These six rules are based on the justice and related gains (Viswesvaran ve Ones, 2002: 194). According to the rules explained above, procedural justice is about the processes which affect the decisions. Any rule violation by decision makers or organization may cause the perception of injustice in terms of procedural justice (Greenberg ve Barling, 1999).

2.1.3 Interactional Justice

The organizational theories focus on the interaction between people and problems caused by this interaction in recent years. The relational dimension of justice is defined by relations between the source of justice and the one who receives it. Relational justice is directly related to the relations between people (Özmen, Arbak & Özer, 2007: 22-29).

Bies (2001) claim that the justice perceptions of the individuals are related to the interpersonal relationships which take place during the processes and this is named after “interactional justice” (Cited: Yürür, 2008:298). Furthermore, Folger and Cropanzano(1998) interactional justice is based on the quality of the relationships between individuals. Explaining reasons of the decisions to the stakeholders, establishing a sincere and reliable interaction with the employees affect the perceptions of justice positively.

2.1.4 Informing Justice

Informing justice is about informing employees about the distribution of organizational benefits and declaring something that happens in an organization is the process of informing them fairly and honestly. It is related to how much information is shared when the processes continue in the organization. In order to satisfy employees, informing them about processes can be more significant than employee salaries (Cropanzano ve Greenberg, 1997; Eker, 2006; Folger ve Cropanzano, 1998;Cited: Titrek, 2009a).

Studies show that the increase on the amount of the information shared with the employees affect the justice perceptions of the employees positively. In this context, the means of communication between the employees and administration are crucial precursors that affect the feeling of the justice among employees (Doğan, 2002: 72).

3. Justice in the Classroom

The school is certainly one of the fundamental institutions of society where exchanges and relations are within the experience of almost everyone and constitute a significant aspect of human interaction. For children, school is likely to be the most important arena of their experience of socialization(Çelikkaya,2008: 23).

The perception of justice appears to be a significant factor for an individual to be able to adapt to the school community as a student. Therefore students who internalized the concept of justice by means of their school experiences will contribute to the school in the short term and to the society in the long term (Çelikkaya, 2008: 4).

According to Beugre (2002) fair perceptions of students bring with the positive behaviors, including students'perceptions that they are valuable and respectable members of the class, and a developed and harmonious relation with the teacher and classmates based on confidence. Classroom justice may be defined as perceptions of fairness regarding outcomes or processes that occur in the instructional context (Chory-Assad ve Paulsel, 2004b:254).

Classroom justice dimensions in the literature usually defined as distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice like organizational justice (Berti, Molinari ve Speltini, 2010:543; Rodabaugh, 1996: 37). Because classrooms are a part of school organizations.

3.1 Distributive Justice

The school is certainly the fundamental place where the distribution of justice takes place (Resh, 1999:103). Schools are places where reward allocation takes place and they are scenes of justice distribution (Lentillon ve Coggerino, & Kaestner, 2006:321). The principle of distribute justice argues that people assess the ratio of their inputs into a situation to the outputs that they receive. When the output equals or exceeds the input, the distribution should be perceived as just or fair. When the output falls short of the input, the situation is perceived as unjust (Adams, 1963, 1965; Cited: Greenberg, 1990: 400).

Students' inputs in an examination context include participation in class, completing out-of-class exercises and homework, and preparing time specifically for the exam (Schmidt, Houston, Bettencourt, & Boughton, 2003: 178). Students' outputs are the grades (Tata, 1999: 265).

Whether outcome expectations are based on individual input or a comparison to others' inputs, feelings of injustice arise when a discrepancy is perceived between the actual outcome and expectations and, in turn, moral outrage results (Schmidt, Houston, Bettencourt, & Boughton, 2003: 179). According to Tata (1999), unfair distributions affect the students' evaluations of their teachers.

3.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice describes perceptions of fairness regarding the process used to determine outcomes (Chory 2007; Byrne ve Cropanzano 2001). Students may sense the procedural justice by the means of having attendance policies, schedules, grading scales, conduct, expectations, exams, and a course syllabus that students felt were fair (Chory-Assad, 2002).

To illustrate the justice rules, consider a situation in which a student believes he or she has received an unfairly low grade and chooses to appeal the grade. According to the justice judgment model, the school's grade appeal procedure should:

- (a) treat all students the same (consistency rule);
- (b) eliminate the effects of student self-interest and instructor bias (bias suppression rule);
- (c) ensure that the student's final grade is based on accurate information about the instructor's standards and the student's performance (accuracy rule);
- (d) make it possible to change an initially inappropriate grade (correctability rule);
- (e) take into consideration the views of the instructor, the student, and other concerned parties (representativeness rule); and
- (f) be consistent with basic ethical principles (ethicality rule).

Judgments of procedural justice will influence evaluations of the students about their teachers, with evaluations being more positive if the procedure is considered fair than if the procedure is considered unfair. Finding suggested that instructors who presented information clearly and gave constructive feedback, had students who understood the reasons behind the grades they received and viewed their instructors as using more procedural justice (Chesebro, Martin, & Bulson, 2004)

Chory Assad& Paulsel (2004), the students' perceptions of procedural justice affect the students' hostile and resistant behaviors to their teachers.

3.3 Interactional Justice

Teacher –student relationship is personal in nature (DeVito, 1986; Frymier ve Houser, 2000) because while students are interacting with their teachers, they make predictions according to their physiological states instead of teacher-student roles (Dobransky & Frymier, 2004; Miller & Steinberg, 1975).

The role of the teacher in the student-teacher interaction is crucial because teachers are the ones who spend time to listen students' opinions and feelings, care about students' aims, meet students' needs, direct students' behaviors and have the distribution responsibility of punishments and awards (Sabbagh,

Resh, Mor ve Vanhuysse, 2006). Interactional justice is the perception of justice during interpersonal interactions while classroom teaching policies and procedures are being executed (Paulsel, Chory-Assad ve Katie, 2005).

According to (Bies & Moag, 1986) interactional justice describes fairness regarding interpersonal treatment when classroom policies are implemented. Students generate interactional justice judgments about the way their instructor communicates with them personally or the class as a whole (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004a).

Research Problem

What is the students' classroom justice perceptions based on justice dimension? Is the main research problem in this study? Moreover, we also searched significant differences of students' perceptions about classroom justice based on gender, school type, family income level, family education levels, academic success level of students and attendance level of social activities of students' variables.

Methodology

The study was conducted through a survey model. Information was gathered from a sample that has been drawn from a pre-determined population at just one point in time. In this study cross-sectional survey model was conducted for the purpose of the research.

Sample

The sample of this study consisted of 486 high school students studying in the district of Körfez, Kocaeli during the 2014-2015 education year. The sample of the study in two steps. At first step schools were chosen based on the school types and at the second step the students were selected randomly from these schools. In random sampling there is a chance for each student of being selected to the sample there for the objectivity rule can be used in this sampling (Balci, 2005:6). Based on sampling method, %30,9 selected from Anadolu High School, %26,4 were selected from Industry Vocational School, %18,1 were selected from Girl High School and %24,5 were selected from Science High School. Moreover, %52,6 were female and %47,4 were male and %39 were in the 9th grade class, %34 were 10th grade class and %27 were 11th grade classes.

Analyses of Data

In the research, 'Perceptions of Fairness in Class Management Scale' was developed by researcher and used to gather data, and then scale items were adopted and re-organized by the researcher according to classroom life to measure justice perceptions of students. From the sample, the scale was administered to 800 students for testing validity and reliability of the scale. Construct validity of the scale was examined by exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Data were analysed with "IBM SPSS Statistics 20" programme. The first step we tested of the data is normal or not and we practised normality test. That's why, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and for stickiness and scewness we calculated kurtosis coefficient and coefficient of skewness level of the data. Based on the result, we understood that data have not got normality result.

7. Results

We analyzed data based on school type to measure fairness level of classroom activities in Turkish schools via students' perceptions and we used Kruskal Wallis test.

Table 1. Kruskal Wallis test analysis results of school type

| | Okul türü | N | Rank Square | Chi-Square | df | p | Difference |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|-----|-------------|------------|----|------|-----------------------|
| Interactional | Anatolian High School | 150 | 236,39 | 18,745 | 3 | ,000 | Kız Meslek- Anadolu |
| | Industrial Vocational High School | 128 | 271,19 | | | | Kız Meslek - Endüstri |
| | Girls' Vocational High School | 88 | 192,00 | | | | Kız Meslek-Fen |
| | Science High School | 119 | 258,73 | | | | Anadolu -Endüstri |
| Reward | Anatolian High School | 150 | 241,19 | 9,101 | 3 | ,028 | Endüstri -Kız Meslek |
| | Industrial Vocational High School | 128 | 272,49 | | | | Endüstri -Fen |
| | Girls' Vocational High School | 88 | 220,22 | | | | |
| | Science High School | 119 | 230,40 | | | | |
| Procedural | Anatolian High School | 150 | 261,69 | 12,914 | 3 | ,005 | Anadolu -Fen |
| | Industrial Vocational High School | 128 | 261,45 | | | | Endüstri -Fen |
| | Girls' Vocational High School | 88 | 231,27 | | | | |
| | Science High School | 119 | 208,27 | | | | |
| Distrubution | Anatolian High School | 150 | 255,46 | 10,055 | 3 | ,018 | Kız Meslek- Anadolu |
| | Industrial Vocational High School | 128 | 260,84 | | | | Kız Meslek- Endüstri |
| | Girls' Vocational High School | 88 | 205,13 | | | | |
| | Science High School | 119 | 236,11 | | | | |

As indicated in Table 1, there is significant difference in interactional justice level scores based on school type (Chi-square=18,745; $p<0,05$). In this dimension, Girls' Vocational High School scores are significantly lesser than other school types. Furthermore, Industrial Vocational High School students' scores are lesser than other schools based on reward dimension scores. Moreover, Science High School students' scores are also lesser than other school scores in procedural justice dimension. Lastly, we found that Girls' Vocational High School scores also lesser than distrubution justice dimension.

Table 2. Kruskal Wallis test analyses results in classroom level

| | Classroom | N | Rank Square | Chi-Square | df | p | Difference |
|---------------|-----------|-----|-------------|------------|----|------|---------------|
| Interactional | 9. class | 189 | 270,41 | 11,938 | 2 | ,003 | 9. -10.class |
| | 10. class | 165 | 226,91 | | | | 9. -11.class |
| | 11. class | 131 | 223,72 | | | | |
| Reward | 9. class | 189 | 261,35 | 11,760 | 2 | ,003 | 9. -11.class |
| | 10. class | 165 | 249,50 | | | | 10. -11.class |
| | 11. class | 131 | 208,34 | | | | |
| Procedural | 9. class | 189 | 254,75 | 2,501 | 2 | ,286 | |
| | 10. class | 165 | 231,50 | | | | |
| | 11. class | 131 | 240,52 | | | | |
| Distrubution | 9. class | 189 | 270,76 | 12,481 | 2 | ,002 | 9. -10.class |
| | 10. class | 165 | 221,82 | | | | 9. -11.class |
| | 11. class | 131 | 229,61 | | | | |

As indicated in Table 2, there is significant difference in interactional justice level scores based on class level (Chi-square=11,938; $p<0,05$). In this dimension, 9. Class students scores are significantly higher than other class levels students' perceptions and 9. Class students scores are significantly higher than

other class levels students' perceptions in distribution justice dimension as well (Chi-square=11,760; $p<0,05$). We could not find any significant differences in other dimensions' scores of students' perceptions.

Table 3. Kruskal Wallis testanalyses results based on students success level

| | Succes level | N | Rank Square | Chi-Square | df | p | Difference |
|---------------|--|-----|-------------|------------|----|------|------------|
| Interactional | Repeated Class | 19 | 188,29 | 17,060 | 4 | ,002 | 1-5 |
| | Conditional I passed | 20 | 232,18 | | | | 2-5 |
| | Directly I passed | 220 | 235,34 | | | | 3-5 |
| | Certificate of Appreciation | 155 | 234,74 | | | | 4-5 |
| | Highest level of Certificate of Appreciation | 71 | 302,45 | | | | |
| Reward | Repeated Class | 19 | 209,84 | 9,867 | 4 | ,043 | 3-4 |
| | Conditional I passed | 20 | 223,40 | | | | 4-5 |
| | Directly I passed | 220 | 258,01 | | | | |
| | Certificate of Appreciation | 155 | 219,40 | | | | |
| | Highest level of Certificate of Appreciation | 71 | 262,41 | | | | |
| Procedural | Repeated Class | 19 | 216,03 | 10,518 | 4 | ,033 | 3-4 |
| | Conditional I passed | 20 | 222,30 | | | | 4-5 |
| | Directly I passed | 220 | 260,16 | | | | |
| | Certificate of Appreciation | 155 | 217,52 | | | | |
| | Highest level of Certificate of Appreciation | 71 | 258,51 | | | | |
| Distrubution | Repeated Class | 19 | 210,24 | 8,426 | 4 | ,077 | |
| | Conditional I passed | 20 | 189,25 | | | | |
| | Directly I passed | 220 | 241,66 | | | | |
| | Certificate of Appreciation | 155 | 240,07 | | | | |
| | Highest level of Certificate of Appreciation | 71 | 277,45 | | | | |

As indicated in Table 3, there are significant differences based on students' perceptions in success level of students' on interactional justice dimension (Chi-square=17,060; $p<0,05$); . reward dimension (Chi-square=9,867; $p<0,05$) and procedural (Chi-square=10,518; $p<0,05$). Student have Highest level of Certificate of Appreciation perceptions are significantly higher than other levels succeed students in all dimensions. We could not find any significant differences in other dimensions' scores of students' perceptions.

According to research results, students justice perceptions about classroom management have not got any significant differences based on family income level, mothers' education level and fathers' education level. Moreover, attendance level of social activities have not got any significant differences in interactional justice, reward justice and procedural justice dimensions. However student's perceptions about distribution justice levels are significantly differ ($p<0,05$). These differences show that non-social student having higher scores than social ones and based on non-social student perceptions, classroom distributions have high level justice when we compared with social students' justice perceptions.

8. Results and Sugestions

The main purpose of this study is to define classroom justice levels of Turkish schools based on students' perceptions. The study is also aimed to investigate significant differences according to independent variables such as school type, class level, success level, socialization level of the student, family income level, mothers' education level and fathers' education level based on class justice dimensions in interactional, reward, procedural and distribution.

Based on the results, it can be said that students' classroom justice perception are affected by school type, academic success level, class level and attendance to the social activities. All these findings achieved coincide with the studies of Molinari, Speltini and Passini (2013). A conclusion regarding the perception of classroom justice is an important variable on the type of school also emerges in the study of Kepekçioğlu (2015) carried out at the university level in Turkey.

Family income, family education levels and gender haven't got any significant difference on students' perceptions in the general sense. However, this study showed that the female student accepts teachers' decisions and activities in the classrrom are more equitable and a similar result emerges in the study of Kepekçioğlu (2015). The result achieved in the study that the students' perceptions related to interactional justice, procedural justice and distribution justice did not differ according to income level is consistent with the study result of Assad (2002). However Tomul, Çelik and Taş (2012) determined in their study that students' justice perception is affected by socio-economic status. In this study, it was seen that the students suffered injustice in the distributive and interactional justice dimensions because of socio-economic reasons. It was observed in this study that educational level of parents did not affect the students' justice perceptions about classroom management. This result is consistent with the study results of Çelikkaya (2008) as well.

In recent years, the concept of justice has been widely studied in the field of education in terms of organizational dimensions. However such questions as "How does classroom environment justice in which students get first experiences affect the formation of their justice perception? What needs to be done to ensure justice in the classroom? Do students meet with fair practice in fair learning environment?" Yet remain to be answered. Because of being a relational research, this study demonstrated by which variables students' perceptions of justice related to classroom management are affected; but, it failed to clarify the matter for teachers what to do to ensure justice in the classroom. However, these questions that need to be answered are very important issues to be addressed to ensure justice in the classroom. Through revealing the students' and teachers' perception of justice more clearly, addressing these issues in future studies may shed light on the formation of the classroom which is more peaceful and fairer, in which students and teachers trust each other.

Class justice research has shed considerable light on how employees respond to perceived fairness in the workplace. For example, when employees feel unfairly treated, their commitment to the organization falls, their job performance drops, job satisfaction declines, and they become much less likely to assist their co-workers (Ambrose, 2002; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Therefore, it can be beneficial to add these dimensions of justice researches to future studies. By this way, the underlying reasons for justice perceptions can be unearthed. These reasons can result from teachers' relationships within themselves or with school principals. It can be expressed that in Turkish schools, relationships between employees are positive and commitment to each other is high, but it seems that there are some problems with school managers' behaviors toward employees. In relation to organizational justice, 'respecting each other, helping each other, and not humiliating each other' behaviors are very positive among employees. Moreover, organizational justice behaviors which are related to managers' behaviors, such as 'respecting employees and trusting employees' are high. However, in relationship with managers' behaviors, such as 'showing approval to employees when they do well, solving employees' treating complaints fairly, giving importance to employees' and their demands, responding quickly to employees' requests, admiring employees and knowing employees' worth, caring about employee's suggestions, avoiding favoritism between employees and not verbally abusing to employees' behaviors are more commonly problematic behaviors in Turkish schools. It can be said that there are some

organizational justice behavior problems related to relational and distributive justice in Turkish schools. In particular, if managers favor certain employees, others can organize informal groups against school management. This can give rise to some unwanted conflicts in schools and also can affect the organizational commitment level of some employees in schools.

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Cultural Aspects in the Content of Advertising Materials

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We are the same inside; it is the culture that makes the difference
Confucius

Abstract

Every society acknowledges the importance of culture, around which the way of social interaction is determined. Culture is part of each one of us, but in a different way for each person and individualization is provided primarily by the society that we belong to. Advertising has become one of the most powerful voices that we hear today. The information in advertisements is constantly directed at consumers and although we are accustomed to different types of promotion, advertising in general represents an increasingly hidden attraction. The power to draw our attention is rooted in aspects within us, such as the culture of the society that makes us unique. In terms of marketing practices, all economic activity can be turned into a failure when advertising underestimates cultural issues while it can be a real success if they are properly promoted. This paper is an analysis of the cultural aspects which are given importance in promotion, highlighting the ones by which Romanians are identified in advertising messages. The topic is presented both theoretically and from empirical studies, with practical examples from the media, describing the most important cultural stereotypes in Romania and their impact.

Keywords: advertising, cultural aspects, marketing, cultural stereotypes, persuasion

Defining culture

Culture is one of the most difficult terms to define, given that this term varies significantly depending on the place, time and the society referred to. In an attempt to define the term researchers have reached tens of definitions attributed to culture. Among the most recognized definitions can be found the one offered by Geert Hofstede who asserts that culture is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the human group from another group [...] and which includes human value systems” (Hofstede, 1980). Another suggestive definition for this term is offered by the anthropologist Ralph Linton who alleges that “culture is the configuration of learned behaviors and their results, whose components are shared and transmitted by members of a given society” (Linton, 1968).

Summarizing these two vies, we can affirm that culture is the way of life of any society. So every society is distinguished by the observance of the culturally created “rules”. The so-called cultural norms are actually answers of the society members to the needs that they met over time. These rules meet both the psychological and physiological needs of individuals in a society. And the need to comply with these habits comes from the desire to receive a favorable response to the individual needs and of course, to be well understood and accepted in the society. Although each person is unique and has different needs, culture is like a set of encodings accepted between the members of society and practically culture exists just through the group of people. Each individual’s needs have changed in time, and thereby culture has a different shape now in comparison to the one existing few decades ago. So although culture is transmitted from generation to generation, it is slightly modified according to the needs faced by the society. Because culture is not only about the artistic side of society, from a sociological point of view,

This work was co-funded by the European Social Fund through the Human Resources Development Sectorial Operational Program 2007 – 2013, project number POSDRU/187/1.5/S/155397, project title “Towards a New Generation of Elite Researchers through Doctoral Scholarships.”

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but also about attitudes, learned convictions, behaviors, beliefs and so on. Thus, culture differentiates us and identifies us at the same time.

But although we are constantly in a process of enculturation, from the moment of our birth, culture does not involve genetic acquisition, but rather actions, established and transmitted beliefs over the personal evolution, through symbols. Symbols are actually the beliefs by which we appreciate what is good compared to what is wrong. If the symbols would be taken individually, as such, they come short of meaning and their value in the society is offered by the people in specific circumstances.

Each society is distinguished by offering a different meaning for certain behaviors or beliefs, *i.e.* each society is distinguished by its symbolism as a component part of the culture. The cultural environment is of paramount importance in the process of building the personality and behavior guidance, so that the individual in its growth accepts the basic culture (culturalism), with certain rules, roles, and specific statutes.

These individualizations actually end up being differences between the people of a society compared to another. So we get to the indications of the anthropologist Ralph Linton, who said that no inhabitant of the sea will realize the water unless he accidentally reached the surface, explaining the fact that no individual of a society is aware of his own symbolism until he gets in contact with individuals of other societies. So the most important factor for the cultural dispersion are the members of a society. Practically, people are carriers of cultural symbols with which they identify. As means of transmitting the culture, we mention books, art objects, various documents, from the most mundane to the most important and in a special way after the Second World War, telecommunications.

Culture's role in marketing

Culture is a component part in all domains. In the economic field, that we will analyze, it is well known that economic activity will fail miserably when the cultural factor is not taken into account. It is well known the situation when McDonalds, a company renowned for its Big Mac beef burger, decided not to serve their specialty in India, a country where Hindu followers consider cow a sacred animal and do not eat beef. The same decision was taken concerning the pork meat because the Muslim community do not consume this type of meat. Thus, Big Mac burger became Chicken Maharajah Mac. More than that, considering that more than 40% of the Indians are vegetarians, McDonalds decided to ignore its traditional menu and to open 100% vegetarian restaurants in India. This is a very good example of rebranding according to the culture of the people to which a business is directed. An ignoring of the Indian culture would have been a disaster for the beef burger sales in this case.

If there are countries where the consumers' preferences seem to be the same, but a close analysis of the communities reveal many differences entailed by their cultural back ground. This is why culture occupies an important place in the marketing analyzes (Sasu, 2006). As Philip Kotler defined it, "marketing is a social and managerial process by which individuals or groups of individuals get what they need and want by creating, offering and exchanging products and services with some value" (Kotler, 1998). Nowadays marketing came to be practiced in all areas, so that "it affects everyone's life, being the means by which the standard of living is offered" (Kotler, Saunders, Armstrong, Wong, 1998). Marketing is fundamentally not merely selling products, ideas and services but focus on fully satisfying the interests of customers and society, going beyond the needs of customers in the theory and practice of marketing and resulting a growth in the standards of living, as Philip Kotler stated in his speech held in Romania in 2005.

A great importance to marketing is given to culture, which has a strong impact on the marketing activities, because in order to meet the needs of a people one must first study their culture, by analyzing its components, and we are recalling here the material culture, religion, social structure, aesthetics, education, tradition and more especially the values promoted by the society members.

Of all the marketing activity, we will focus on promotion, where culture plays a crucial role. The promotion policy, also called communication policy, involves a series of actions aiming to inform the

target market regarding products or services offered by a company. The promotion policy is accomplished through various means of marketing, like advertising, sales promotion, public relations and personal selling, each of these containing several distinct components. It is a great mistake to design a promotional material before knowing the cultural specificities of the society to which it is addressed because, first of all, the members of the society will ignore the material first, and the company will get to be ignored as a result of the inappropriate message transmitted. Colors and images, symbols and sounds employed in creating advertising are means of communication and using them right creates bridges between the company and the auditory or the opposite, a bad use creates walls, sometimes indestructible.

Thus, any promotional action will require a person's cognitive as well as emotional ability, abilities settled by cultural, educational, or religious determinants. If we analyze the advertising from few years ago with the one from nowadays, we can easily see that today we have more attractive advertising than in the past. We will also notice that the message is emotional rather than objective, the latter attribute's strictly informative role being placed somewhere in the background, the main purpose now being to persuade the customer to buy.

Cultural stereotypes found in Romanian advertisements

Patriotism

Romania, like other societies, preserves the cultural aspects which identify it particularly among other cultures. Romania's culture is strongly supported by intellectuals, artists in various fields, but also by learned convictions, behaviors, and beliefs specific to the Romanian society.

Romania is a country where patriotism has always been a sensitive aspect of the society and has been manifested constantly in situations where this side was invoked. And we can see the trend of various promotional materials in highlighting the patriotic Romanian constituents deeply rooted in the culture of the country.

Elements such as the flag, the three colors, rustic places where two elders are present, various foods cooked "like grandma does" induce a good mood to the adults in a special way. Analyzing the contents of such messages, we see that behind this induced emotion there is the appeal to a specific need in the hierarchy of needs realized by Abraham Maslow, *i.e.* the need of belonging, which can mean the need for peace, happiness, fulfillment together with the loved ones, need that is satisfied by fulfilling some basic needs.

Basically, products in advertising, which actually provide physiological needs (food, clothing), are associated with a perfect picture symbolizing happiness and stability. This image captures the attention of many Romanian precisely by the fact that many of the adults had a childhood when they went to their grandparents and the rustic houses were a common place where one could receive affection, peace. The environment provided by the grandparents was a warm, friendly, calm one, which promoted health, freedom, and safety. Cultural elements such as patriotism are often invoked in advertising clips and they generate positive emotions and people have more confidence in the product presented through the prism of the emotion just released.

Family

Another cultural aspect identified in advertising is family. Romania is a country where family has a special status, especially when the family includes children. The Romanian culture often associates happiness with marriage, considering marriage a fulfillment. The Proverbs "He who marries later marries badly" or "Marriage is the excellent school of life" prove once again the importance of marriage in the Romanian society. The advertisements frequently invoke happy young with a product included in the category of physiological needs. Messages transmitted in advertisements relating this topic is that a family manages to achieve happiness with a simple yogurt with probiotic that could improve health, with an electric household appliance that gives them more time, with a trip that offers them relaxation, a car offering

greater comfort or even a bank loan wherewith they can buy anything. (Voicu, B.; Voicu, M., 2007). Family, a cultural element apparently less important, manages to involuntarily draw the attention of an entire society. Married people inspire greater confidence in the Romanian society and they are treated with more respect. When an advertising material delivers images or messages in which family occupies a particular place, the product enjoys more credibility and advertised products are more easily observed among the others.

Elders

Along with the family, the representation of elders in advertising is frequently found. Old age has many sides with positive and negative aspects. But the old age in the Romanian culture is associated with wisdom, so that "He who hasn't an old man has to buy one" because "Elders are sowing and young people collect the fruits". Grey hair is considered a reason for elation and with the passing of the years one is considered wiser and not a person who needs help, required by his weak and burdened by years body (Catoiu, Teodorescu, 1997).

The message transmitted by commercials having old age as background is that elders will better know the difference between quality and blemish, they will know when there is right time to cultivate the land, they will know what turns a regular snack into a culinary delight, and they will always have answers to any question. Thus, the combination of old age and wisdom found in Romanian culture can be easily identified in advertising and it can be quite often found in promoting products of ordinary use. So we are told that we will be wise if we will buy the oil used in a presentation of an old woman, and the food will be as tasty as the grandmother's. Surely we will choose wisely when we will buy the building materials recommended by an old master in the commercial. The advice of an old physician on some food items for children in an advertisement will provide good confidence in the advertised product.

Conclusions

Culture has always been a fulcrum of the society. Influences of culture on society are countless and society members will always be touched by the culture in which they were born and developed. Culture is a way of life that we live and which is constantly developing, but the synthesis of cultural influences is extremely difficult since the conceptual structure is not clearly defined in the circumstances to which we referred. Culture is in constant evolution, and when we speak of values, attitudes, norms, it is more difficult to establish limitations clearly and that is why studying culture involves a plurality of sciences such as sociology, anthropology, psychology. Romania possesses a wonderful culture with roots deep in the consciousness and personality of each member of the society. Romanians enjoy the customs and values offered as legacy for generations and all these cultural symbols are experienced as a special feeling in the Romanian society. Family, elders, patriotism are Romanian cultural symbols, and it is a normal thing for the Romanians to react positive when they are invoked. When in the promotion for products that ensure their basic needs are emphasized social and cultural values, norms of the society, the opportunity of reliving emotions, those products will certainly have more success among the members of the society. So quite often, we buy advertised products based on this simple detail but with a special value, namely cultural aspects behind the promoted products.

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An Efficiency Evaluation on Agricultural Cooperative Operation in Thailand

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Abstract

A component of this research is concerned about an efficiency evaluation of agricultural cooperative operations in Thailand. It was aimed to study an operation of agricultural cooperatives by focusing on their problems and efficiency. A mixed method was applied in the research. A qualitative research methodology was used for studying operation condition of the cooperatives with grounded theory approach, while a quantitative research methodology was used for evaluating an efficiency of the cooperatives with CCR (Charnes Cooper and Rhodes Model) and BCC (Banker Charnes and Cooper Model) of the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA). The study focused on a location in Thailand in which the agricultural cooperative provided a best practice concept. The results revealed operation efficiency in an agricultural cooperative system in Thailand which was improved in various fields. Agriculturists understood more about the cooperative concept and became members since a policy about agricultural cooperative promotion was launched. However, there were five issues for management: personnel issues, management issues, governmental issues, political effect issues, and law issues. The researchers propose theoretical and practical suggestions from the research at the end of the article. In the efficiency evaluation, we found that among the efficiencies of the cooperatives from CCR efficiency points from every combination, two factors including the total efficiency factor and the cost efficiency factor were the most significant. Considering the BCC efficiency score, two other factors rated very significantly: the efficiency factor in specific cost management in business and operation, and efficiency factor assets.

Keyword: Agricultural Cooperative Issue, Agricultural Cooperative, Efficiency Evaluation.

Introduction

Currently, there are 7,837 cooperatives in Thailand with 10,563,375 members and assets of 2.2 trillion baht approximately calculated to be 18.95% of gross domestic product (GDP) (Cooperative Promotion Department, 2012). Developing the agricultural cooperative would be a mechanism helping to develop society, economy, and culture. This development would be a tool for looking after and securing the living of farmers. Thailand's cooperatives are divided into 2 main types including: 1) agricultural cooperative group consisted of 3 subtypes including: agricultural cooperatives, fishery cooperatives, and land settlement cooperatives; and 2) non-agricultural cooperative group consisted of 4 subtypes including: saving cooperatives, credit union cooperatives, consumer cooperatives, and service cooperatives. Agricultural cooperatives are considered as the highest amount of cooperatives in Thailand calculated to be 54.24% of total of cooperatives consisted approximately of 6,116,121 members (Cooperative Promotion Department, 2012).

This research focuses on developing agricultural cooperatives to be strong and grown sustainably in order to give good effects to Thailand's economy in overall picture. Farmers are often ignored, received no attention, and taken advantages by unfair competition of capitalism. As a result, cooperative practices are a way of helping to improve the lives of farmers or cooperative's members through efficiency measurement on the operation of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand. It can be said that efficiency measurement of production unit at the level of producer, organizations or agencies is necessary for current operations because it supports planning or establishing future policies as well as adaptation for being ready for competition. Moreover, it also helps to provide some information for improving the efficiency of each production unit. A guideline for measuring the efficiency of production

unit with the identical characteristics of operation is utilizing Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) by applying DEA method to measure the efficiency of production unit based on the relationship between inputs and outputs, especially for measuring the operation of cooperatives in Thailand. How DEA methods reflect the efficiency of production unit clearly depends on how to select the relevant inputs and outputs that are important for operational efficiency (Prasopchai, 2006).

Hence, the researchers were interested in evaluating the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives in the area of Petchaburi province that was determined as the main research area. This research was considered as the pilot study before expanding to study in other provinces and it may be upgraded as the regional research of Thailand because there were 37 agricultural cooperatives in Petchaburi province and 24 of them were operating their operation normally while 13 of them was closed. The total members of those cooperatives were 46,853 with the approximate working capital of 2,976,355,898.01 baht and the total business volume was approximately 2,693,598,353.64 baht (Petchaburi Provincial Cooperative Office, 2013). Most of the population of Petchaburi province work agricultural fields including paddy farming, fruit gardening, palm sugar producing, livestock, and fishery, etc. The agricultural cooperatives are considered as an important financial institution for their occupation.

However, the researchers emphasized studying them for evaluating the operational efficiency of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand. To do a study on the operational conditions focusing on identifying the problems of Thailand's agricultural cooperatives and evaluating the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives, a mixed method between qualitative research for studying the operational conditions of agricultural cooperatives and quantitative research for evaluating the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives was utilized to lead to planning and establishment of strategies for further operation of Thailand's agricultural cooperatives.

Objectives

1. To study the operational conditions focusing on specifying the problems of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand.
2. To evaluate the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand.

Conceptual Framework

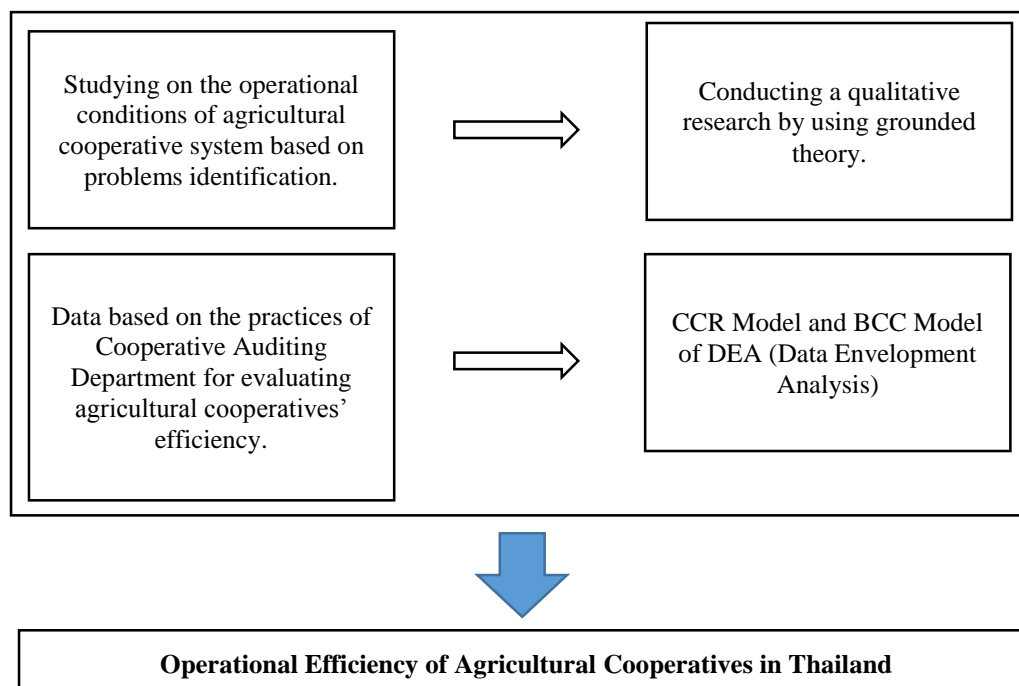


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Methodology

In this research, a Mixed Method was utilized between qualitative research for studying the operational conditions of cooperatives and quantitative research for evaluating the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives. As a result, the methodology of this research was divided into 2 parts as follows:

Part 1: It was the study on the operational conditions focusing on identifying the problems of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand by using grounded theory. This stage was a qualitative research based on grounded theory and the researchers used interpretivism and creativism according to the practices of (Charmaz, K., 2006) of government officers with experience in managing agricultural cooperatives in Thailand. The key informants were government officers with working experience in agricultural cooperatives not less than 20 years for providing in-depth information via in-depth interview as well as participating in providing their opinions toward the problems of agricultural cooperatives clearly in order to be able to create the data required for the study (Patton, M. Q., 1900). The key informants also consisted of some government officers of the Cooperative Promotion Department and Cooperative Auditing Department because these agencies were under Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives with direct and legal responsibility on the operation of agricultural cooperatives. The samples were selected by using purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Prasopchai Pasunont, 2012). The tools used in this research were research questions created through conceptual framework and theories in the form of open ended questions. The topics of those questions were related to the operation of the agricultural cooperatives that became problems or obstacles in various fields. In addition, there was also the observation in the operation of the agricultural cooperatives. The reliability of this research was inspected by using Theoretical Triangulation (Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S., 2008).

Part 2: It was the evaluation on the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand that was conducted in the form of the quantitative research for evaluating the efficiency of the agricultural cooperatives by using CCR model (Charnes Cooper and Rhodes Model) and BCC model (Banker Charnes and Cooper Model) of DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis) (Zhu, 1998; Jenkins and Anderson, 2003; Ho and Wu, 2009). The populations and data collection were obtained from 24 agricultural cooperatives in Petchburi province that were operating their operation normally. Primarily, the cooperatives' data was inspected and the researchers determined the variables of data analysis based on the practices of Cooperative Auditing Department (Cooperative Auditing Department, 2011) in order to calculate the DEA method. The unit of these five variables was baht as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Variables Used in Part 2 of the Research

| 4 Input Variables | 5 Output Variables |
|--|---|
| 1) Main business cost represented by 1, i.e., the costs of selling products gained from credit business, products supplying business, product collection business, agricultural promotion and services business. | 1) Revenue was represented by Y, i.e., total revenue earned from credit business, products supplying business, product collection business, agricultural promotion and services business, revenue from specific business, other revenues, and revenues from special transactions. |
| 2) Specific costs in business and operation were represented by 2, i.e., remaining expenses from operational expenses, specific business expenses, and expenses of special transactions. | |
| 3) Total amount of debts were represented by 3, i.e., total debts were consisted of current liabilities, long-term liabilities, and other liabilities. | |
| 4) Cooperative capital was represented by 4, i.e., total capitals including equity capital, reserve capital, and other capitals. | |

Results

From the conclusion of the results of Part 1: the operational conditions focusing on identifying the problems of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand based on grounded theory, it was found that the results could be synthesized as the research's theoretical conclusion as follows:

1. The operation of the agricultural cooperatives may be unsuccessful if there was no participation of members and if there was a lack of vision and explicit policies of cooperative committees as well as a lack of transparency and managerial skill of management department and failure of audit department to perform their duties accurately. The key of agricultural cooperative's progress was the sense of cooperative's ownership of personnel in 4 sectors.

2. Whenever the agricultural cooperatives were able to manage their knowledge and utilize information on business management, their services would be complete meeting with the demands of members and improving the competitive efficiency against the private sector.

3. If the Cooperative Promotion Department and Cooperative Auditing Department that are the government agencies with direct responsibility for supervising the cooperatives established the explicit and consecutive policies by solving the problem on workforce shortage through providing knowledge on new technology to all personnel sufficiently and supervising all cooperatives extensively as well as emphasizing the integration between the two departments, so the cooperatives development would be efficient and sustainable.

4. Political problems occur in agricultural cooperatives, local and national government agencies affected to the development's direction of cooperatives in Thailand. Moreover,

exploitation of the political sector from agricultural cooperatives was also the danger threatening the living of farmers who were the members of the cooperatives.

5. Laws are the tools of government sector for supervising and auditing the cooperative's operation that can be positive and negative tools. Since it is difficult to bill only one law to meet with all demands of all types of cooperatives, law enforcers must understand cooperative history and must be transparent and always consider the cooperative's benefits.

6. Whenever any political party exploits any benefit under the cooperation of any government officer by using any legal policy and any gap in law, this may damage the operation of the cooperative and the adverse results of such action may affect cooperative members. Moreover, such political party may establish some policies to solve such problem for claiming favor from the cooperatives.

7. Although the overall picture of knowledge and skills on agricultural cooperatives management was improper, farmers were able to rely on it because it provided stable capital with non-performing loans and bad debt compared to other business units. As a result, if knowledge and skills in business operation of the agricultural cooperatives was improved along with morality, ethics, and loyalty, cooperatives can become another backbone of Thailand's society and economy.

8. To develop cooperatives, it is impossible to consider any dimension specifically. To develop cooperatives sustainably for optimal benefits, it is necessary to consider the overall picture in all its dimensions. When considering personnel and management, they are considered as internal inputs requiring adaptation to meet with the stream of the world. Simultaneously, external inputs (e.g., public sector, politics, and laws) must facilitate and be consistent with internal inputs. This is because the good quality of life of farmers who are the majority of Thai populations should provide good conditions for developing Thailand in other fields.

In this research, the problems could be concluded from the study on the operational conditions focusing on identifying the problems of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand based on grounded theory as shown in Figure 2.

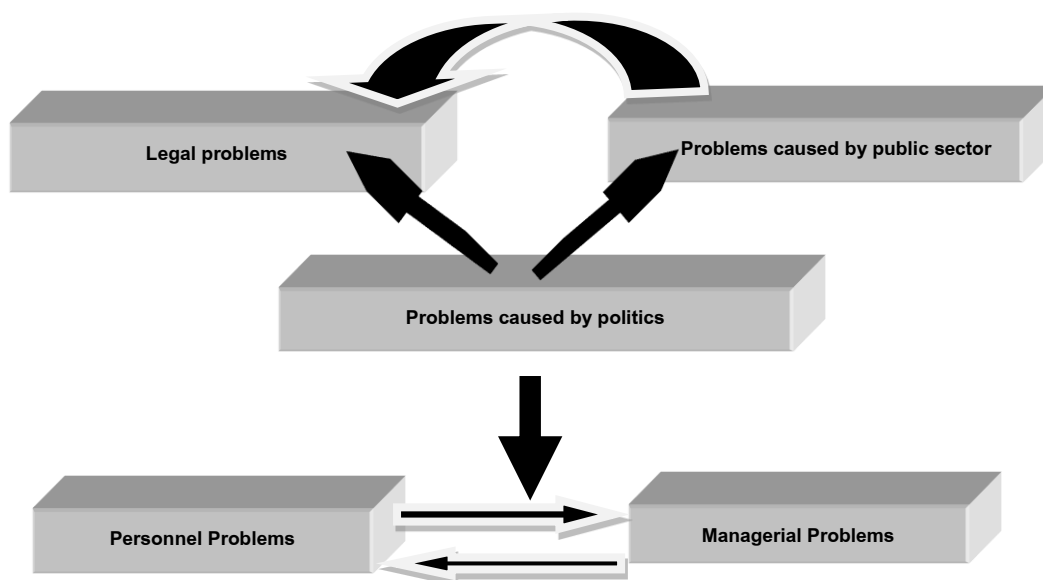


Figure 2: Relationship of the Operational Problems of Agricultural Cooperatives in Thailand reflected by the Opinions of Government Officers of Cooperative Promotion Department and Cooperative Auditing Department

The results of Part 2: the evaluation on the efficiency of agricultural cooperatives were able to be concluded by using CCR model (Charnes Cooper and Rhodes Model) and BCC model (Banker Charnes and Cooper Model) through DEA (Data Envelopment Analysis). From the result of calculation

of descriptive statistics of variables used in this research, it was found that most agricultural cooperatives had the lowest costs of 3 inputs including the main business cost, specific costs in business and operation, and total amount of debts. The overall result of calculation of the efficiency score on the operation of the agricultural cooperatives in Thailand showed that their costs were quite low with high operational efficiency as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The Overall result of Evaluation on the Efficiency of Agricultural Cooperatives by Using CCR Model and BCC Model

| CCR Model | | BCC Model | |
|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|-------|
| Average Efficiency Score | SD | Average Efficiency Score | SD |
| 0.651 | 0.362 | 0.612 | 0.254 |

The results of analysis on the operational efficiency of agricultural cooperatives in Thailand within the studied area were shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Cooperative Clusters Classified by Characteristics, Efficiency, and Inputs from Efficiency Score

| Score | | Efficiency from all Classifications | | Inputs from Efficiency Score | | | | | |
|---------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Cluster | Cooperative Members | Overall (CCR) | Real Technique (BCC) | Overall (PC_CCR1) | Capital (PC_CCR2) | Costs Management (PC_BCC1) | Assets (PC_BCC2) | | |
| 1 | DMU1 DMU2 DMU3 DMU7 DMU18 | Low | | Very Low | Low | Very Low | Low | | |
| | | | | | | Low | Very Low | | |
| 2 | DMU4 DMU5 | Low | Moderate | Very Low | Low | Low | High | | |
| 3 | DMU6 DMU9 DMU14 | Moderate | | High | Very Low | High | Very Low | | |
| | Moderate | | | Low | Quite Low | Low | | | |
| | | | | | Very Low | Very Low | | | |
| 4 | DMU8 | High | | Very High | Low | Very High | Low | | |
| | High | | | | | High | | | |
| | DMU16 | | | Moderate | | Quite Low | Remarkable High | Quite Low | Very High |
| | DMU12 | | | | | | | | |
| DMU13 | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | DMU15 | Moderate | | Low | | Very High | Very Low | | |
| 6 | DMU17 | Low | High | Very Low | Low | High | | | |

From Table 3, it was found that Cha-am Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU1), Hub Kapong Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU2), Ta Yang Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU3), Khao Yoi Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU7), and Dr. Soil's Organic Fertilizer Production of Ban Nai Dong Sub-District, Ta Yang District, Petchaburi Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU18) had low efficiency scores in all models of input classification, both CCR and BCC models. It was indicated that the operational efficiency of the cooperatives was at a low level compared with other cooperatives that was consistent with the score of PC_CCR1, PC_CCR2, PC_BCC1, and PC_BCC2, reflecting the overall efficiency on costs, specific costs in business and operation, and assets, respectively. It was found that the score of those 4 inputs was negative, especially PC_CCR1 and PC_BCC1, showing the inefficiency on their sizes explicitly.

Mueang Petchaburi Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU4) and Ban Lad Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU5) had low scores of overall efficiency and moderate scores of real technique in all models of input classification, for both CCR and BCC models. Both cooperatives had low efficiency on size, i.e., Mueang Petchaburi Agricultural Cooperative Limited was IRS requiring size increasing. For Ban Lad Agricultural Cooperative Limited, since it was DRS, its size should be reduced. When considering input scores, it was found that PC_CCR1 PC_CCR2, and PC_BCC1 were negative, especially PC_CCR1 that was quite low. On the other hand, the score of PC_BCC2 was explicitly outstanding.

Nong Prong Water User Cooperative Limited (DMU6), Song Tham Water User Cooperative Limited (DMU9), Nong Ya Plong Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU10), Nong Tien Water User Cooperative Limited (DMU11), and Don Sai Water User Cooperative Limited (DMU14) had moderate score of overall efficiency and efficiency of real technique in all input classifications with specific costs in business and operation (2). When considering the score of inputs, it was found that all cooperatives could be divided into 2 groups. The first group consisted of DMU6, DMU9, and DMU14, with the remarkable scores of overall efficiency (PC_CCR1) while the score of management of specific costs in business and operation (PC_BCC1) was moderate and the efficiency of costs (PC_CCR2) and assets (PC_BCC2) still required more emphasis. The second group was consisted of DMU10 and DMU11 with low scores of PC_CCR1 while PC_CCR2 was negative but not very low. In addition, PC_BCC1 and PC_BCC2 were quite swayed.

Kao Na Petchaburi Dairy Cooperative Limited (DMU8), Chaam-Huai Sai Dairy Cooperative Limited (DMU12), Don Khun Huai Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU13), and Petchaburi Agricultural Marketing Cooperative Limited (DMU16) were classified in a group with high score of overall efficiency and efficiency of real technique. Since DMU8 and DMU16 had the low score of efficiency in Y1, Y4, and Y14 models, both cooperatives had the drawback on the efficiency of cost but they were outstanding on the overall efficiency and efficiency on specific costs in business and operation. For DMU12, its full score was 1 in all models with the inputs of specific costs in business and operation (2) but it had low score in Y4 model. For BCC model, its full score was 1 in all model classifications and the operational efficiency of the cooperatives was at a high level. Compared with other cooperatives, it was outstanding on the overall efficiency, efficiency of specific costs in business and operation, and efficiency of assets. For DMU13, its full score was 1 in all models with the inputs of main business cost (1) and/or cooperative capital (4). It was a cooperative with high PC_CCR2 that was very different from other cooperatives but it had low score in models with input of all amount of debts (3) (or Y3 model). As a result, it was a cooperative with high score of efficiency on cost and assets but its drawback was the input of all amounts of debt.

Mae Prachan Water User Cooperative Limited (DMU15) had a moderate score of overall efficiency and high score of efficiency of real technique, especially in models with input of specific costs in business and operation (2). In addition, it also had low score of efficiency in models with input of all amount of debts (3) and/or cooperative capital (4) (Y3, Y4, and Y34), namely, this cooperative was outstanding on specific costs in business and operation with serious drawbacks in the efficiency of assets.

Raisom Sub-District Agricultural Cooperative Limited (DMU17) had low score of the overall efficiency with high score of the efficiency of real technique in all models of input classifications, for both CCR and BCC models, except for Y4 model that used only cooperative capital (4) as input with a very low score. As a result, the drawback of this cooperative was cooperative capital. However, its score on the efficiency of specific costs in business and operation and efficiency on assets was quite high.

However, most agricultural cooperatives in Thailand had good inputs on the efficiency of management of specific costs in business and operation and efficiency on assets.

Discussion

This research was conducted to evaluate the efficiency of the agricultural cooperatives by using DEA method for analyzing the efficiency score caused by all input and output classifications in order to find the outstanding and drawback inputs or outputs of the cooperatives in the studied area. The executives of agricultural cooperatives are able to implement the results of this research, especially the results of efficiency on management of specific costs in business and operation and efficiency on assets, as the guideline for planning the action plan or establishing strategies. Since financial information was used as the factor of efficiency evaluation based on DEA method, it was another dimension of preferring efficiency evaluation of the operation of the agricultural cooperatives in Thailand. The operation of Thailand's agricultural cooperative system was started to be developed in several dimensions and larger amount of farmers started to understand and participate as the members due to the agricultural cooperative promotion policies of public sector. However, there were 5 problems of management found in this research including personnel problems, managerial problems, problems caused by public sector, problems caused by politics, and legal problems. The problems of management of agricultural cooperatives were able to be divided into 2 factors including: 1) Internal Inputs consisting of personnel and managerial problems; and 2) External Inputs consisted of problems caused by public sector, problems caused by politics, and legal problems. These factors led some theoretical suggestions and practical suggestions obtained from this research that are at the end of this article. From evaluating the operational efficiency, it was found that the agricultural cooperatives had efficiency with respect to the factors from the CCR efficiency score. In all classifications, it was found that there were 2 factors including the overall efficiency and the efficiency on capital. When considering on BCC efficiency score, there were two factors including the efficiency on management of specific costs in business and operation and the efficiency on assets. Since the objective of the cooperative's operation is not only earning revenue but the successful cooperative must also promote members' participation and mutual assistance for benefits of members, communities, and society, for gaining better quality of life on living, economy, and other dimensions. As a result, evaluating efficiency in its various dimensions, both

quantitative and qualitative dimensions, is challenging and interesting for further researches in the future.

Suggestion

From the results, it was found that there were five dimensions of operational problems of agricultural cooperatives including personnel, management, public sector, politics, and laws. In addition, several problems are linked to one another. To improve the efficiency of the cooperatives for becoming the tool for helping farmers who are majority of Thailand's population, the Thai government should address those problems as the primary problems prior establishing the national strategies on cooperatives in order to gain integrated solutions. However, although the information used in this research was obtained from agricultural cooperatives in Petchaburi province, the concept of this method is able to be expanded for using with agricultural cooperatives in other provinces or it may be even upgraded as the regional research or national research proceeds further.

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Decomposition of Impact of Shocks on Individual Sectors: Case of the Czech Republic

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we analyze the importance of an inclusion of sectoral heterogeneity into the basic New Keynesian model to estimate the impacts of monetary policy and technology shocks on the Czech economy. We provide disaggregation of variables of the basic New Keynesian model as well as parameters to account for sectoral differences. The simulation of the model is based on the parameters estimated from input-output tables and national account data from the Czech Statistical Office. We find significant variations of the three sectors of interest namely: industrial, financial and the composition of other sectors in response to the technology shock and the interest rate shock of the Czech central bank. We conclude, that the industrial sector is the most sensitive to these shocks and provide detailed discussion of such results.

Real Experiences in geometry: Origami-based Instruction

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to offer an alternative way for fourth and fifth grade students not only to be able to understand the properties of geometric shapes, the concept of congruence, similarity and symmetry axis better but also to calculate and estimate the relationship between areas of similar geometric shapes by using origami-based instruction. In this study, firstly the students watched the videos of origami shapes from simple to hard then it was provided for students doing themselves step by step to discover the properties of geometric shapes such as triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid, pentagon by using demonstration method. The classroom was prepared that the students could express themselves individually and in a group. During the study, it was aimed to improve the students' logical-mathematical, visual-spatial and bodily-kinesthetic intelligence ability. In this context, they estimated the area of triangle, square, rectangle without formulas and cooperated. They shared their results and different methods in class. During this instruction, their positive attitude towards origami-based learning was observed.

Key Words: Origami-based instruction, congruence, similarity, symmetry axis, geometric shapes
Introduction

The curriculum program of Mathematics lesson is addressed in effective manner, emphasizes that the students are active in their own learning process and so foresees that they are the subject of their learning process. In the meantime, when it is necessary concrete models should be used and the studies are applied towards the students' reasoning skills such as communication, association (MNE, 2013). Similarly, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics referred as Principles and Standards for School Mathematics that new knowledge, tools and ways of doing and communicating mathematics continue to emerge and evolve. The need to understand and be able to use mathematics in everyday life and in the workplace has never been greater and will continue to increase [NCTM] (2000).

Mathematics education have difficulties in learning and teaching. Concrete mathematics tools are known as objects that can be touched and moved. They are used for conceptual understanding in the learning of mathematics (Cass and the others, 2003). The use of mathematical tools provide that mathematics is more meaningful for students by helping conceptually (Bulut and the others, 2002). Using maths and geometric tools is required for translating concepts from abstract to concrete. When the tools are selected, it is noticed the grade of the students and the subject. The tools used in mathematics and geometry lessons are such as fraction bars, geometric strip, unit cubes, paper types etc. Origami is commonly known word in Japanese. "ori" means "to fold", and "kami" means "paper". Generally origami is known as Japanese art of paper folding. The more precise definition was done in 1999 by Joseph Wu who was an origami designer; he defined origami as a "form of visual / sculptural representation that is defined primarily by the folding of the medium – usually paper. In literature, origami and paper folding used interchangeable (Çakmak, 2009). In general, origami is divided into two categories, which are classical origami and modular origami. In classical origami, one piece of paper is used to make a figure of an animal or a flower. On the other hand, modular origami consists of congruent small modules and requires different combination of these modules to form a figure. Generally, these figures made by modular origami are three dimensional geometric figures (Tugrul & Kavici, 2002). In this study, we have used classical origami to make figure of some animals.

The Geometry Standard takes a broader view of the power of geometry by calling on students to analyze characteristics of geometric shapes and make mathematical arguments about the geometric relationship,

as well as to use visualization, spatial reasoning, and geometric modeling to solve problems. Geometry is a natural area of mathematics for the development of students' reasoning and justification skills [NCTM] (2000).

A commonly accepted method is through the instruction of Origami, the art of paper folding. Within the study of geometry in the middle school curriculum is the natural development of students' spatial visualization, the ability to visualize two and three dimensional objects. The national mathematics standards call specifically for the development of such skills through hands-on experiences (Boakes, N. J., 2009). Origami is an innovational movement for improving important skills. Moreover it had many educational benefits, such as; behavioral skills, cooperative learning, cognitive development, multicultural awareness, community building and mathematical skills (Levenson, 1995; Tugrul & Kavici, 2002).

In maths and geometry lessons, teaching the area and the perimeter of the geometric shapes by using formulas as a procedure consecutive causes students misunderstanding. Therefore, this causes misconceptions and students can't understand the subject of the area and the perimeter well and (Baturó & Nason, 1996, Chappell & Thompson, 1999; Moyer, 2001). So, it should be provided that students can learn the area and the perimeter of the geometric shapes by more lasting way (Moyer, 2001). At the same time, the terminology and the language of geometry lesson causes that students can't understand some concepts and translate experiences in their real life problems.

Mathematics is one of the lessons that the primary and the secondary students have difficulty in learning. Whether they like or dislike the lesson and all their feeling about confidence are expressed as mathematical manner. It is claimed that students' manner can effect not only how they approach but also their level of knowledge, interests, performance, and information requests (NCTM, 2000). Lots of investigation shown that students' manner affect their interest and success in mathematics (Akkoyunlu, 2003; Barbato, 2000; Martin, 2005; Moore, 2002; NCTM, 2000; Özdoğan, Bulut and Kula, 2005; Papanastasiou, 2000; Plano, 2004; Tağ, 2000). So, students' belief toward lesson is very important for learning context. In Turkey, the elementary mathematics program was based on the reform movements in Turkish education system in 2013 and in this program it was noticed students' positive emotional developments. Additionally, it was considered students' basic mathematics skills such as problem solving, connections, reasoning and communication (Ministry of National Education, 2013) [MNE]. The fundamental purpose of mathematics education is to provide that students like mathematics, enjoy solving problem and rely on their mathematical skills. Therefore, available process should be used for students' success and the development of their emotional properties' (Günhan & Başer, 2008). In this study, it has been aimed that the students rely on themselves and show positive reaction to mathematics.

Purpose

Geometry and arithmetic are two different sub-branches of mathematics. Because students think that they are independent lessons, they have difficulties in mathematical thinking, making comment and doing algebraic operations. In this study, it has been provided that the students develop their mathematical communication skills and ability. In other words, they develop to analyze not only abstract symbols but also to benefit visual skills for solving problem.

When the mathematics curricula in the United States and Turkey were examined, it was seen that spatial ability was prevalent in mathematics education, especially in geometry (Çakmak, 2009). For instance, when the NCTM standards of USA were examined, it was seen that many geometry standards focus on spatial ability. Some of those standards are given:

- Analyze characterizes and properties of two- and three-dimensional geometric shapes and develop mathematical arguments about geometric relationships,
- Specify locations and describe spatial relationships using coordinate geometry and other representational systems,
- Apply all transformations and use symmetry to analyze mathematical situations,
- Use visualization, spatial reasoning and geometric modeling to solve problems (NCTM, 2000).

Similarly, when the mathematics curriculum was examined in Turkey, it was also seen that spatial skills were important. To state clearly, in the last years here was a change in the Turkish education system (Çakmak, 2009). Koc, Isiksal, and Bulut (2007) mentioned that the curriculum reform started in elementary education was made in five subject matter areas: mathematics, science, social science, life science and Turkish.

According to the elementary mathematics program, geometry should be learned about certain content areas at certain levels, and under certain pedagogical conditions. In relation to this, it is purposed that students in the 5th grade should learn to draw and show lines and axis in coordinates system. In addition, it is aimed that students should name geometric shapes, understand the properties of geometric shapes and the concept of congruence, similarity. In this grade, there are students' benefits to understand the properties of triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid. However there is students' benefit to estimate the area of quadrilaterals in the 5th grade, students will learn the concept of height in the 6th grade. But in this study, the students have opportunity on estimating the area of triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid without learning the height of the triangle.

This activity has been applied on ten students in Ege University Child Education Research Center (EGEÇEM) during four lessons period. During the first two lessons, firstly the students watched the videos of origami shapes from simple to hard. These figures are the origami figures of some animals: butterfly, fish, swan, penguin, frog, turtle, crane. The students have had enjoyable times for doing the origami figures of the animals. Then it has been provided for students doing themselves step by step to by using demonstration method. This study aimed that the students understand the concept of congruence, similarity and symmetry axis better by touching paper. Addition to this, it has been provided that the students guess the geometric shapes such as triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid, pentagonal and their properties in every step and they discover the relationship between areas of similar geometric shapes. Therefore, the classroom was prepared that the students could express themselves individually and in a group and discuss their methods (as seen Photograph 1,2,3,4).



Photograph 1



Photograph 2



Photograph 3



Photograph 4

Meanwhile, in this study the students discover the properties of triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid, quadrilateral, pentagonal and develop the students' psychomotor skills by using concrete materials. During the last two lessons, activity 1 and 2 (given below) have been made by students. In activity 1, the origami of handbag has been made by the students in the 4th and the 5th grade. In activity 2, the origami figure was opened and turned first step then every square in paper was accepted as one unit square. The students asked the given questions in activity 2. They shared their thinking about the areas of triangles and quadrilaterals without using formulas (as seen Photograph 5-6-7-8). Such a folding activity enhance students' belief toward problem solving and benefit each student to share resources, and a positive interdependent learning context can naturally be developed.



Photograph 5



Photograph 6



Photograph 7



Photograph 8

ACTIVITY 1 (Making a Handbag By Origami)

Step 1: Let's fold the paper in half. (the paper size is 28x21 cm)

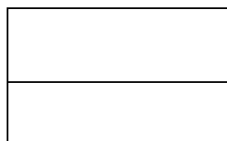


Figure1

Question: Is there a similarity between the two rectangles formed? If so, write the rate of similarity.

Question: Is there a symmetry axis? If available draw.

Step 2: Let's fold the four corners of the paper to the middle layer.

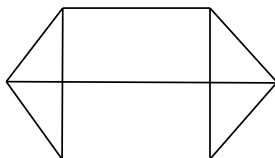


Figure 2

Question: Is there a similarity between the four triangles formed? Are the area of the triangles equal?

Step 3: Let's fold the right and left ends in the middle layer.

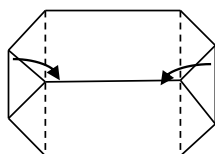


Figure 3

Question: Find the similar triangles and rectangles in Figure 3. Are the area of the triangles equal?

Question: Are the area of the rectangles equal?

Question: What is the shape formed by three equal triangles?

Step 4: Let's fold the right and left sides in the middle layer.

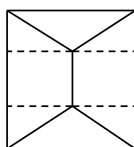


Figure 4

Question: Say the shapes formed. Find similar rectangles in figure.

Question: Are the area of the quadrilaterals equal?

Step 5: Let's fold back the top and bottom ends in the middle layer.

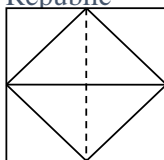


Figure 5

Question: Say the shapes formed. Is there any co- triangle?

Step 6: Let's fold the paper in half outwards.

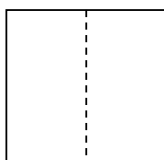


Figure 6

Question: Are there similar rectangles? Say the relationship between the areas.

Activity 2:(Estimation the area of the handbag by Origami)

Do the paper first step. Think that every square in paper is 1 unit square, calculate the area of the geometric shapes in every step.

Step 1:

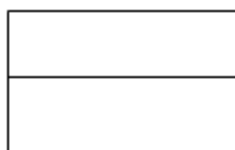


Figure 7

| | Area |
|-----------------------------|------|
| One of the small rectangles | |
| The big rectangle | |

Step 2:

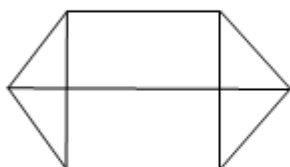


Figure 8

| | Area |
|-----------------------------|------|
| One of the small triangles | |
| One of the big triangles | |
| The rectangle in the middle | |

Step 3:

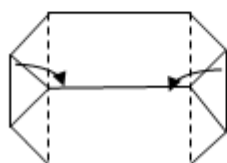


Figure 9

| | Area |
|-----------------------------|------|
| One of the small triangles | |
| One of the medium triangles | |
| One of the big triangles | |
| One of the trapezoids | |

Step 4:

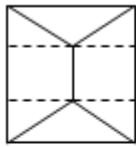


Figure 10

| | Area |
|----------------------|------|
| One of the triangles | |
| Rectangle | |

Step 5:

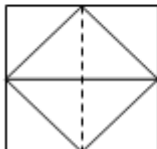


Figure 11

| | Area |
|-----------------------------|------|
| One of the small triangles | |
| One of the medium triangles | |
| Rectangle | |
| Small square | |
| Big square | |

Question: Say the relationship between the area of the big square and the small one.

Question: Say the relationship between the area of the small square and the small triangles.

Question: Say the relationship between the area of the rectangle and the small triangles.

Step 6:

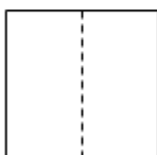


Figure 12

| | Area |
|-----------------------|------|
| One of the rectangles | |
| Square | |

Conclusions

After the activities (origami-based instruction), interviews were conducted to investigate the student experience and perceptions in collaborative problem solving with origami as well as the process of learning. The findings from the interviews are analyzed from four perspectives.

1) The development of mathematical process skills (cognitive skills):

- The students guessed the geometric shapes such as triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid, pentagonal.
- The students learned how they could product new knowledge by using their experiences.
- The students learned to make comparisons, comment and generalizations step by step.
- The students developed their mathematical thinking and skills.
- The students developed to practice algebraic operations.
- The students tried to find available solution for given questions.

2) The development of emotional skills:

- The students were willing to make the figures of origami and enjoyed the activity.
- The students shared resources and a positive interdependent learning context.
- It was observed the students' positive attitude towards origami-based learning.
- The students could reach the answers with collaboration and exchange their ideas.
- The students could think together.

- The students could express themselves individually and in a group and discuss their methods.
- The students could rely on themselves and show positive reaction to mathematics.
- The students learned to be patient while solving problem.
- Each student was given equal opportunity to develop the geometric spatial sensing and reasoning skills.

3) The development of psychomotor skills:

- The students learned to produce paper toys and the figures of origami.
- The students learned how they could use and fold paper and instructional geometrical tools.
- The students could imagine the geometrical shapes by using materials.

4) Instruction benefits:

- The students could understand the concept of congruence, similarity, line and symmetry axis better by touching paper.
- The students could name and guess the geometric shapes such as triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid, pentagonal and their properties in every step.
- The students discovered the relationship between areas of similar geometric shapes.
- The students had opportunity on estimating the area of triangle, square, rectangle, trapezoid without using the height of the triangle.
- The students could estimate the areas of triangles and quadrilaterals without using formulas.

Successions

The researchers argued that the collaborative learning activity of origami could reduce the gap between high-ability and low-ability students. The activities in class could help in understanding the composition of area and develop the imagination and creativity. The findings of this research could be possible reference and practices while some further.

1. The teacher may expand the sample of target group and set up control group for further research.
2. The teacher may enlarge the activities and enable sufficient time for more exercises.
3. The teacher should train students and develop their group work skills.
4. The teacher should encourage all students to participate in the activity and overcome difficulties with time.
5. The teacher may use technological resources such as computer.

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A Study on the Management Potential with Creative Economy-Based Concept of Restaurant Entrepreneurs around Seaside Tourist Attractions in Thailand

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Abstract

This research was conducted with a mixed method between quantitative and qualitative research methodology. Its purpose was to study the potential management of restaurant entrepreneurs located around seaside tourist attractions in Thailand, and to study an application of a creative economy-based concept of the restaurant entrepreneurs. As a quantitative approach, a questionnaire was used as a main instrument for collecting data and evaluating the management with CIPP model of Stufflebeam (1971). There were 40 restaurant entrepreneurs located in Hua-Hin and Cha-Am districts in western Thailand selected by purposive sampling methods. An in-depth interview was also applied in terms of the qualitative approach to study their concept and issues which occurred during their operation. The results revealed that 75% of the restaurants were verified from a public health agency with an uncertain period of time. According to the evaluation with CIPP model, the entrepreneurs had the potential to manage and enhance their business. The factors including context, input, and process were in medium level ($\bar{x} = 3.92, 3.86, 3.98$ respectively) whereas the entrepreneurs highly emphasized their products and outputs ($\bar{x} = 4.24$). For the descriptive data, it showed that the product and appearance were the most important factors for the entrepreneurs. They focused on creating an atmosphere at a storefront and providing a creative food menu to attract customers and promote awareness. The entrepreneurs expected to generate creativity in a customer relationship by applying various social media channels to promote, maintain their business image and increase efficiency of two-way communication with the customers. Theoretical and practical suggestions from the results were also included at the last part of this article.

Keywords: Management Potential, Creative Economy, Restaurant Entrepreneur

Introduction

Considering globalized Thai society, it is revealed that the way a company is run tends to change drastically, compared to previous times. A business sector in the industrialized era focuses on the mass market, leading to a main emphasis on the organization and quantity without considering the differences among groups of consumers. However, nowadays mass production may not make the business survive due to many factors such as higher competition, insufficient resources, and advanced information technology. There is also the influence of materialism that encourages the investment and the promotion for the best benefit to the firm. Moreover, the New Economy seems to be highly competitive and demands a relationship between the organization and information technology and electronic communication (Howkins, 2013).

The new economy concept results in various interesting and challenging phenomena to the entrepreneurs. The higher competition requires that the entrepreneurs have both internal and external supports to develop and make a difference so that they have more negotiating power. New knowledge and innovation for adding values to the products becomes mandatory. The new economy concept may be considered as knowledge-based economy, and involves the relationship between information technology and electronic communications (Howkins, 2013). As the revolution of the business competition emerged, in the future, Thai society may face a digital economy where information spreads so quickly that it becomes riskier and always calls for new information.

When boundless competition eases the product exchange to be more convenient and fast, crossing the boundary is no longer an obstacle for international trade. The consumers have their right to

choose the products freely in terms of quality and price. However, analyzing and improving products or services are still not enough appeal for them. Therefore, the Thai government has been encouraging creative economy policy in order to improve new products and services and avoid generating products for which competition is mainly based on price. The creative economy places precedence on ideas and approaches to add more value to the products and services without using excessive resources, but applying more wisdom and creativeness instead (Warapon Saamkoses, 2010).

The creative economy, thus, clearly conforms to the status quo, for it can be considered a way to add more value that derives from human's ideas called intellectual property to the products to raise their commercial value. Technological innovation and traditional property are the main influences to economic development and growth. Furthermore, creative industries are the heart of the creative economy. They consist of a cycle of creative activities, production, and distribution with the main factor of creativity and intellectual capital (Sakchai Kiatnakin, 2010: 19-22). The creativity relies on three significant conditions - personality, originality, and meaning. Both creating a new product and introducing an outstanding one are intellectual property and are under patent and copyright laws (Howkins, 2013). Creative economics involves trading creative products. Each trade may relate to two types of values that promote each other – tangible and intangible intellectual values. Both values usually relate to culture, social wisdom, and technological innovation that facilitate the production of economic and social value added products to meet the consumers' needs. The entrepreneurs tend to apply creative ideas as valuable resources to ensure stability and intelligent personality instead of relying on the working environment that is difficult to estimate (Chamaipon Wisesmongkol, 2010).

According to the influence of the creative economy, the eighth to eleventh National Economic and Social Development Plans (NESDP) have been encouraging the development of a creative domestic economy. The study of increasing economic value through cultural capital has been conducted in details in order to lay stress on the cultural strengths and advantages to be beneficial to the economy, and the production structure has been focused to add more value to the products and services. Moreover, the eleventh NESDP (2012 – 2016) has laid forth regulations and policies along with improving knowledge and research and developing infrastructure and environment in Thailand in order for the creative economy to be as beneficial as possible to large, medium, and small business at a policy level (Office of Knowledge Management and Development, 2012).

Small and medium scale restaurant entrepreneurs play an important role to the tourist industry such as accommodation and transportation business. The tourists need food during their vacation or travel. Having restaurants in the tourist attraction areas, therefore, is necessary and leads to convenience especially in the areas along the beach where a large number of tourists travel. The restaurant business can also be an advantage of the tourist spots and earn more income. During the first quarter of 2015, the Thai economy was growing by 3.0 percent which was higher than its previous quarter, and trends towards 4 percent thanks to better private consumption and investment and tourism growth for the rest of the year (Macroeconomic Strategy and Planning Office, 2015). Therefore, the development of the businesses at the tourist site should be supported and put in further practice.

However, the anticipation of the businesses still affects business development. The entrepreneurs can utilize the result of the anticipation to help make decisions on running and developing their business in terms of planning, processing, and assessments to make a more suitable and effective approach (Sirichai Kanchanawasee, 2009).

Regarding to the above mentioned, this research aimed to investigate the management potential based on the creative economy concept of restaurant entrepreneurs around seaside tourist attraction in western Thailand.

Objectives

1. To investigate the management of restaurant entrepreneurs around seaside tourist attractive spots in western Thailand.
2. To examine the potential management based on creative economy concept of restaurant entrepreneurs in western Thailand.

Conceptual Framework

After the secondary documents regarding management theories, assessment theories, data on medium and small business, as well as various other researches were analyzed, the conceptual framework was shown as in the following figure.

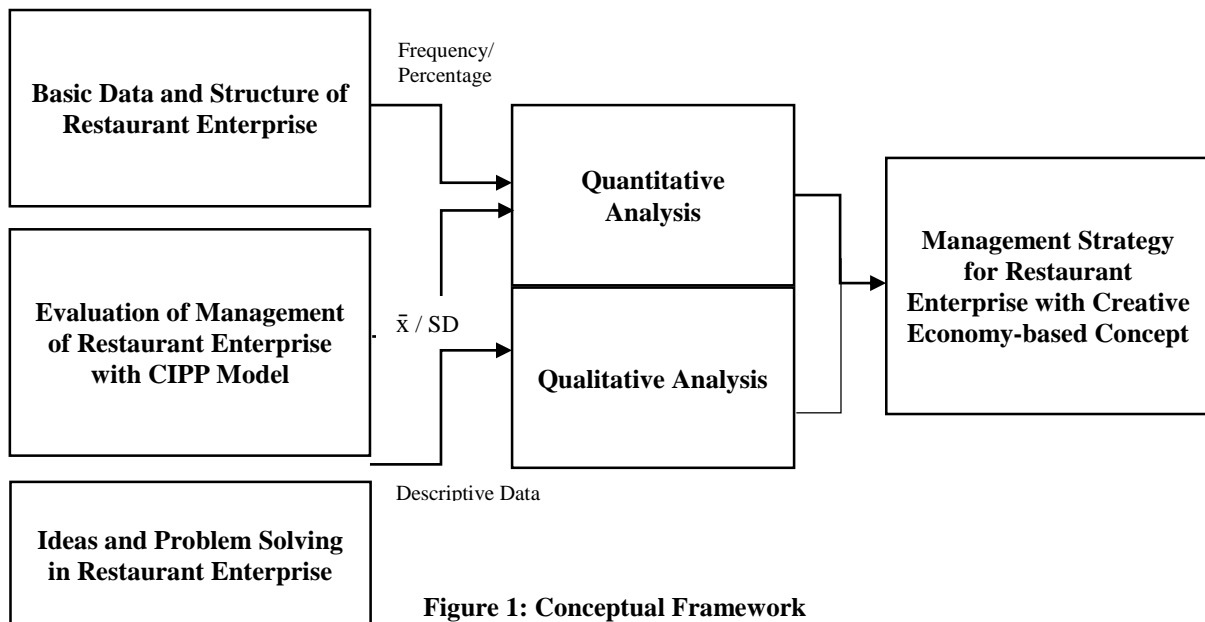


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Research Methodology

This research was undertaken through mixed method composing of both quantitative methodology and qualitative methodology, of which details are as follows.

1. The participants of this research were the restaurant entrepreneurs who ran their own business or the managers who had worked for at least one year. Their restaurants were obvious.
2. The research samples consisted of 40 restaurant entrepreneurs being chosen with purposive sampling.
3. The data collection was conducted at the tourist attractive places along the seaside in Chiam District, Phetchaburi Province, and Hua Hin District, Prachub Khiri Khan Province, which are located in western Thailand.
4. The research instruments can be provided into two parts.
 - Questionnaire: developed by the researcher by studying from the documents and other research that covered details concerning restaurants. The CIPP model was used following Stufflebeam approach (1917, cited in Sirichai Kanchanawasee, 2009: 37). There were four parts in the questionnaire – 1) 5 questions regarding general information of the participants in multiple-choice style, 2) 11 questions regarding restaurant entrepreneur's information, 3) 5 questions each of context, input, and process evaluations, and 4) product evaluation, 4) open-end questions regarding problems and development of restaurant business.
 - Semi-structured interview was used to collect information from the main informants. The open-end questions prepared were flexible according to the situation so that all narrative information could be gathered and used to support the quantitative study. The questionnaire included the issues of business motivation, approach, management problems, competitive environments, importance of creative economy, and strengths and weaknesses needing improvement.

Data Analysis

1. Quantitative data analysis

After the data was collected using questionnaires it was checked for errors, and then analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science for Windows). Demographic data was analyzed with descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation, interpretation which was of importance and covered five levels ranging from highest to lowest.

2. Qualitative data analysis

Descriptive analysis involves the description of the data obtained via the interview, arrangement, and analysis on purpose of revealing details concerning product's sensory characteristics or their comparison with other brands. The descriptive test lets the entrepreneurs to evaluate their opponent's products in deep details.

Results

According to the quantitative data, it can be characterized as follows.

1. General information

Most restaurant entrepreneurs were male (65.0%), aged 31 or more (57.5%). Their most frequent education level was that of a bachelor degree (85.0%). They earned 15,000 baht or more (100%), and were of married status (82.5%).

2. Restaurant formation and general information

According to the study, 75 percent of the restaurants had undergone the food cleanliness assessment conducted by the public health sector at unidentified times. 45 percent received the "clean food good taste" sign. 52.5 percent of the restaurants had location disadvantages, and 65 percent were in the same level of food quality and taste as their competition. There were 72.5 percent of the restaurants for which food and beverage prices were the same as others', and 42.5 percent laid a policy toward satisfying its customers with good tasting and clean food.

3. The result of the restaurant management evaluation by using CIPP model can be concluded as shown in the below tables.

Table 1: Mean, standard deviation, and importance level of context evaluation

| Context factors | \bar{x} | S.D. | Importance level |
|---|-----------|------|------------------|
| 1. Government introduces the tax measures to support the medium and small business. | 3.58 | 0.78 | medium |
| 2. Government implements the policy on promoting the restaurant business. | 3.60 | 0.78 | medium |
| 3. Recession leads to some changes in consumption behavior of the consumers. | 3.88 | 0.88 | medium |
| 4. Consumers turn to healthier food. | 4.18 | 0.64 | high |
| 5. Internet and social networks have an effect on business development and consumer behavior. | 4.35 | 0.77 | high |
| Total | 3.92 | 0.83 | medium |

According to the mean, standard deviation, and importance level on Table 1, it was found that the sampling group put great importance on the effect of internet and social networking on their business development and consumer behavior ($\bar{x} = 4.35$), and the consumers turning to healthier food ($\bar{x} = 4.18$).

The factors for which the sampled group rated medium were the recession leading to changes in consuming changes of the consumers ($\bar{x} = 3.88$), the policy promoting the restaurant business ($\bar{x} = 3.60$), and the tax measures supporting medium and small business ($\bar{x} = 3.58$).

Table 2: Mean, standard deviation, and importance level of input evaluation

| Input factors | \bar{x} | S.D. | Importance level |
|--|-----------|------|------------------|
| 1. There is enough staff to serve customers. | 4.10 | 0.71 | high |
| 2. Quality ingredients are used. | 4.28 | 0.68 | high |
| 3. Enough tables for the number of customers. | 3.85 | 0.66 | medium |
| 4. Sufficient number of staff to the customers is considered. | 3.70 | 0.52 | medium |
| 5. Staff is trained so that they can carry out efficient services. | 3.35 | 0.74 | medium |
| Total | 3.86 | 0.73 | medium |

The result of the input evaluation on Table 2 shows that the sampling group put high importance on the having enough staff to serve the customers, and the quality of ingredients ($\bar{x} = 4.10$ and 4.28 respectively), and a medium level of importance on the sufficient number of tables for customers, suitable number of staff serving the customers, and the training for staff to be able to perform their service efficiently ($\bar{x} = 3.85$, 3.70 , and 3.35 respectively).

Table 3 Mean, standard deviation, and importance level of process evaluation

| Process factors | \bar{x} | S.D. | Importance level |
|--|-----------|------|------------------|
| 1. Cooking process meets the standard and qualification. | 4.40 | 0.55 | high |
| 2. There is systemized or computerized payment. | 3.80 | 0.65 | medium |
| 3. To order is convenient and easy. | 3.73 | 0.51 | medium |
| 4. The staff serves food quickly. | 3.90 | 0.59 | medium |
| 5. The order is checked for correctness. | 4.05 | 0.81 | high |
| Total | 3.98 | 0.67 | medium |

The mean, standard deviation and level of importance on Table 3 revealed that the highly important factors were standard and quality cooking process ($\bar{x} = 4.40$) and the order being checked for correctness ($\bar{x} = 4.05$). The factors of medium important were the food being served fast, systemized and computerized payment, and easy order ($\bar{x} = 4.05$, 3.90 . and 3.73 respectively).

Table 4 Mean, standard deviation, and importance level of product evaluation

| Product factors | \bar{x} | S.D. | Importance level |
|--|-----------|------|------------------|
| 1. There are various menus beautifully decorated. | 4.08 | 0.73 | high |
| 2. The food is worth its price. | 4.33 | 0.66 | high |
| 3. There are dishes with different tastes. | 4.20 | 0.79 | high |
| 4. The food that is already cooked is consistently standardized. | 4.38 | 0.63 | high |
| Total | 4.24 | 0.71 | high |

The evaluation of production factors shown on Table 4 suggested that the sampling group ranked every factor highly important, not only the consistent quality and standard of the cooked food, and price worthiness, but also the variety of tastes and the variety of menus beautifully decorated ($\bar{x} = 4.38$, 4.33 , 4.20 , 4.08 respectively).

Regarding the in-depth interview of the informants who were restaurant entrepreneurs, they indicated that most restaurant hours were from 10.00 to 23.00, and the popular menus were seafood,

Som Tum (green papaya salad), Pad Thai (stirred fired noodle), and Tom Yum (sour and spicy soup). The motivation to run the business was that Hua-Hin and Cha-am were tourist attractive places that appealed to both domestic and international tourists, so many investors saw the opportunity to run a business including restaurants in the areas. Some entrepreneurs who had a house there usually modified it to be a restaurant to earn some income and to utilize it. Most entrepreneurs mainly managed the restaurant according to the customers' needs. Each restaurant and its area were decorated in a shady style for the purpose of attracting customers to come and relax, especially during the day when the weather was rather hot. Some restaurants were designed like a wooden house which gave the image of traditional house, and some provided a photo-taking area for the customers to take a photo along the seaside.

In case of the problems raised among the restaurant's staff or between the staff and the customers, verbal warning or punishment such as reduction of bonus was usually applied. Some restaurants talked to the customers right away to find out about the problems and their solution in order to satisfy the customers in terms of taking responsibility.

Creativity was vital to almost all restaurants because the entrepreneurs believed that the business nowadays changed rapidly. Access to the customers could be done through many channels, and there were more restaurants every day. Therefore, the restaurants should be creatively decorated, and online medium should be used to market the service. Renowned social media employed included Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. Most restaurants encouraged their customers to post some photos or status and share their experience in travelling and restaurants to their friends on their social network. Plus, improved public relations through a provincial tourism guide was implemented and home delivery for the order from its neighborhood was available.

Nevertheless, some entrepreneurs refused to use social media as their instrument to broaden their market and public relations, for they still believed in the traditional marketing more than creative marketing through online media for their restaurants. Regarding the improvement of the restaurants, the owners saw that the parking area was insufficient because most restaurants were located on main streets with the resulting limits, so nearby parking areas should be provided for the customers to meet their satisfaction.

Discussion

The following interesting issues were raised and discussed after conducting this study:

According to the environment evaluation and the in-depth interview, the entrepreneurs were aware of the social media and internet as tools to promote two-way communication and also having an effect on the business's image. This indicated that the entrepreneurs looked at the social media as their commercial opportunity to promote and enlarge their markets. The fact that the consumers paid more attention to health and clean and healthy food was considered, meaning that the entrepreneurs realized how much consumers' behavior was affected by those issues. This conformed to the study of Jittapon Chumkate (2015) on the authentic evaluation and management approach of OTOP herbal product of SMEs entrepreneurs in the western region of Thailand. It was found that business competition under aggressive capitalism related to the increasing negotiation power of the customer, and the entrepreneurs should run their business in cooperation with each other and set the management standard together. However, the entrepreneurs were not really interested in the policy to support the business, the tax measures, and the overall economic situation.

Pertinent input factors also involved the entrepreneurs putting medium importance on the ingredient collections from qualified areas and the preparation of the cooking tools. This reflected that they should be more prepared of resources and capital for basic implementation. Moreover, human resource management, staff training to enhance their efficiency, and restaurant interior arrangement were important issues for which the entrepreneurs did not attach much importance. Likewise, the overall service was not paid attention enough. However, the standard and quality cooking process and the correct order that the customers would get were expected, and the highest importance was paid on the

products which were the quality food of a consistent standard. That is, the food needed to taste the same and to have the same standard every time it was cooked. This was controversial. If they would like their cooking process and the result efficient, they needed to improve all input factors – ingredients, tools and equipment, and serving skill training.

Meanwhile, the restaurant entrepreneurs had not been sufficiently supported by the government in terms of product standard maintenance. 75 percent of them were found not to have standard and cleanliness inspections by the public health sector, and only 45 percent of the sampling group received a ‘Clean Food Good Taste’ certificate, which reflected the government’s unsystematic management over the restaurants in the area. Moreover, the input factor evaluation indicated that the entrepreneurs did not realize the importance of the preparation and the quality conservation of their products.

According to the issues as discussed above, there is a guideline of restaurant management for the entrepreneurs based on the creative economy concept shown in figure 2.

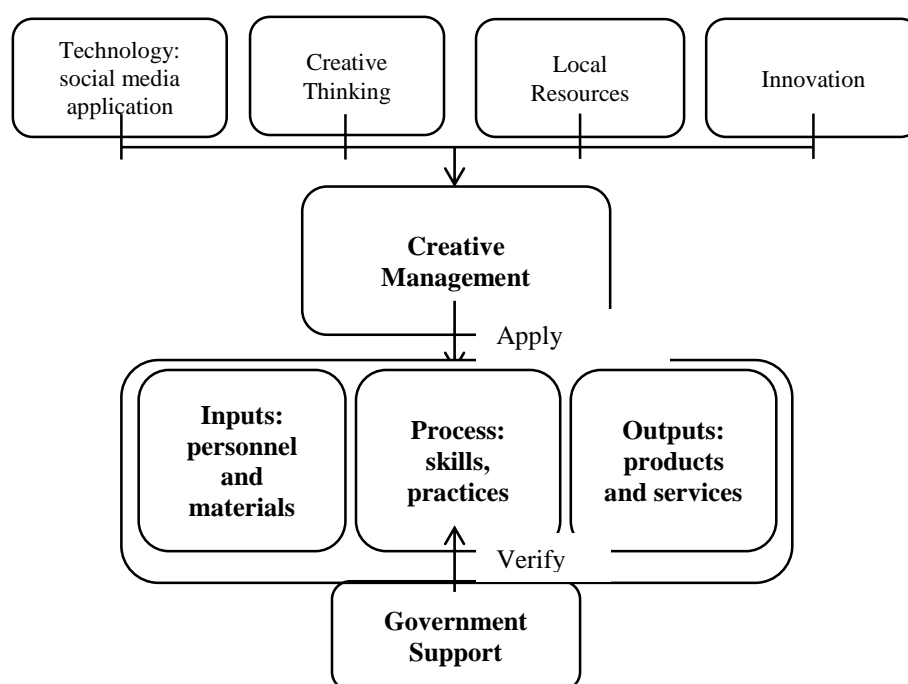


Figure 2: A guideline of restaurant management for the entrepreneurs based on the creative economy concept

Suggestions

This study led to some suggestions that would be beneficial to the development or the solution to the problems toward the management under the creative economy in order to benefit the restaurant entrepreneurs as follows.

1. The entrepreneurs should clearly generate their human resource policies such as recruiting staff according to the designated qualifications and conducting service training for staff to meet the standard and to gain competitive business advantages.
2. The staff should be encouraged to improve their English so that they could serve foreign customers more effectively.
3. The entrepreneurs should pay more attention to the ingredients, tools and equipment, and focus on staff profession in order to carry out standard and consistently quality food products and services.

4. Government sector should provide useful information regarding the application of creative management, and engage in the inspection and issuing the certificate to the qualified restaurants. This may help raise the creditability of the restaurants.

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The Road to COP21: Towards a Universal Climate Agreement?

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Abstract

Climate change is one of the greatest environmental and social challenges of our time. It is considered by many to be the issue that will shape the twenty-first century. After more than 20 years of international climate negotiations under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), world leaders will meet this year in Paris, from November 30th to December 11th, in order to reach a new international agreement on the climate. The goal of the 21st meeting of the Conference of the Parties (COP21) is to keep global warming below 2°C, which requires a universal and legally binding agreement. What are the expectations for a new climate agreement? This paper reflects on the history of climate negotiations and on the prospects of achieving in Paris the necessary agreement to ensure global climate security. It is concluded that the final outcome will probably be the architecture of a fragile agreement, insufficient to deal with the problem, since the differences among the various countries are still very deep. The multidimensionality of the climate change issue and the current widespread diffusion of power in the international system are two barriers of enormous proportions on the road to global cooperation. It seems unlikely that, at the end of 2015, countries are able to surpass their national interests on behalf of the global good.

A Systematic Policy about Integration of National R&D Project Application Processes Scattered Across Government Departments

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Heeseok Choi, Korea Institute of Science and Technology Information, South Korea

Abstract

For the management of national R&D projects, a total of 17 government bureaus and authorities have their own research management agency. These research management agencies launch a national R&D project and execute budgets every year and manage the research outcome. To launch a national R&D project, the details of the program are first announced - mostly through an online system. The research management agencies operate their own R&D management system and report the details of the R&D project announcement, and researchers log in to the system and apply for a project. For this, however, they need to approach the research management system and search the information they want. This study provides the details of national R&D project announcement in an integrated manner and suggests a plan to carry out the application efficiently without individually approaching the scattered research management systems. In addition, this study discusses a way to log in to heterogeneous systems, project application processes, and how to manage and provide the research information in an efficient manner.

Keywords

R&D project, Project application, NTIS, Research management system, SSO

Introduction

To take a dominant position in core future technology and have a leading R&D system, a portion for basic studies among national R&D budgets would be expanded up to 40% by 2017. In addition, the national R&D budget has annually increased, including expansion of technology innovation-oriented small and mid-sized enterprise-centered government-led R&D investments. For this, the related projects and programs have been actively promoted across bureaus. In particular, the current administration has emphasized the improvement of R&D management efficiency and researchers' convenience [1]. A total of 17 bureaus and authorities in South Korea have planned a national R&D project and have their own research management agency. The research management agency plans the R&D projects and posts them in its research management system. The R&D announcement information in the research management system are collected and provided in an integrated manner by the National Science & Technology Information Service (NTIS) in real-time[2][3]. Researchers can approach the NTIS and check the bureau-wide R&D project announcement information at any time. To apply for a project, however, they need to approach the research management system and apply for the project individually. This study discusses an integrated login method between the NTIS and each agency's research management system, project application process and how to utilize the project application information for the efficiency of bureau-wide R&D project application. In chapter 2, a method to realize bureau-wide national R&D project application processes is described. In addition, login between the NTIS and research management agency's research management systems, bureau-wide announcement number-based project application process and the linkage and utilization of bureau-wide project application information are discussed. Conclusions are drawn in the final section.

Design of bureau-wide national R&D project application process

For years, each bureau's research management agency has developed and operated a research management system to handle project announcement, receipt, negotiation, and management of research outcome. So far, researchers had to search all these research management systems to find the announcement they want in applying for a national R&D project. To improve this system, the NTIS has collected and provided bureau-wide project announcement information in an integrated manner. Under this system, however, researchers can check the announcement information only. They cannot apply for the project. This study attempts to provide a project application window through the NTIS to improve the researchers' convenience, by allowing the bureau-wide project announcement information to be checked and applied through a single service. Here, the project application window means that researchers who log in to the NTIS can apply for the project by automatically logging into the research management agency's research management system when they use the project application function after checking the announcement information. Importantly, the project application and receipt function is executed in the research management agency's research management system. The NTIS aims to provide easily accessible windows only. Figure 1 reveals a conceptual diagram for the improvement of project application efficiency. Researchers can log in to the NTIS and check the announcement information without accessing numerous research management agencies to check the project announcement they want. Then, login between the NTIS and research management agency and project application are handled to allow the related project to be applied for. Furthermore, the application information in each research management agency is linked with the NTIS. Therefore, researchers are able to search and edit bureau-wide R&D projects in the NTIS.

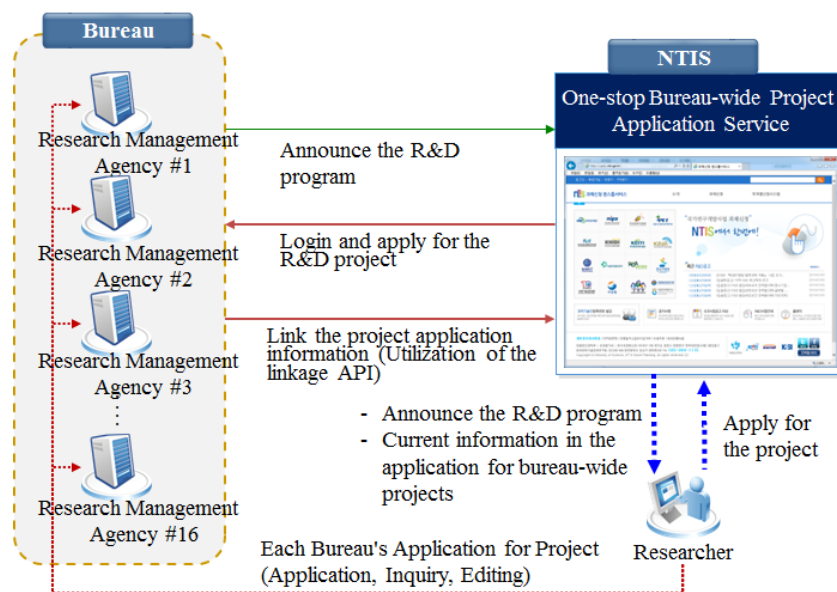


Figure 1: Conceptual Diagram for Application Efficiency of Bureau-wide R&D Projects

Login solution between the NTIS and the research management agency's research management systems

To free the researches from the inconvenience of logging again in providing the project application window through the NTIS, a login process between the NTIS and research management agency's research management system is needed. For the integrated login process between heterogeneous login solutions, a Single Sign-On (SSO) authentication server, login agent, and a personal identification key are used. For a personal identification key, the science and technology engineer registration number which has been used by both NTIS and research management agencies is applied. Those who want to participate in a national R&D project are required to get the science & technology engineer registration number in accordance with 'Regulations on the management of the national R&D program' [2].

Figure 2 shows a login process sequence diagram between the NTIS and research management agency's research management system. Once researchers log in to the NTIS and execute the project application

function, the NTIS checks if the science and technology engineer registration number is issued. If the science and technology engineer registration number exists, the NTIS requests a token to the SSO authentication server and has it issued. The issued token is sent to the research management agency's research management system. After the token is received, login is requested to the login agent. Then, the login agent checks the validity of the token transferred from the NTIS to the SSO authentication server. Once validity is confirmed, the login agent calls its own login solution and executes the login process.

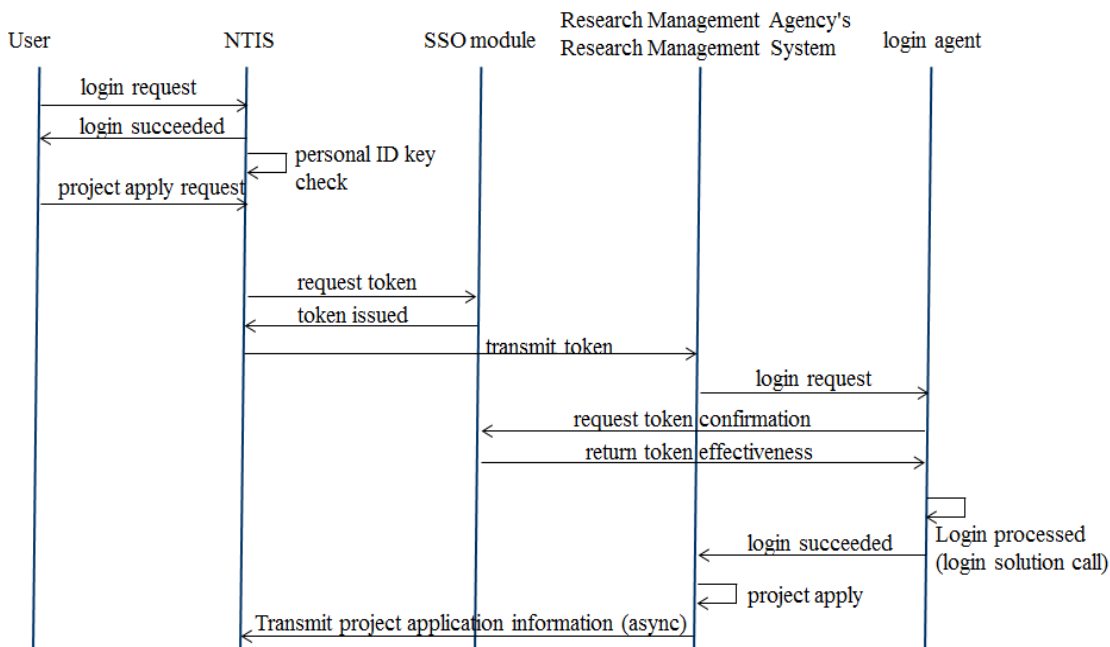


Figure 2: Processing of login between the NTIS and research management agency

System policy for the R&D project application process using bureau-wide announcement number

As stated in the paragraphs above, even though the login process to the research management system is completed through the project application function provided by the NTIS, the research management system should check which category was selected for the execution of the project application. For this, this study uses the bureau-wide application number. An each bureau's announcement numbering system is developed and used in examining the current bureau-wide announcements. Then, it is used as an identification key for project application. As soon as each research management agency posts the announcement in its research management system, an announcement connection API provided by the NTIS is created and collected together with the announcement information in the NTIS. The announcement numbers collected in the NTIS are transferred to the research management system when a project is applied for by the researcher. After being logged in and identified, they are utilized in suggesting the project application display.

Table 1. Bureau-wide announcement numbering example

| Category | Project year | Organization code | Announcement No. |
|-------------|-------------------|---|--|
| Example | 2004 | KAIA | 00000836 |
| Description | The business year | Korea Agency for Infrastructure Technology Advancement | Project announcement number of KAIA |

Table 1 shows an example data by a bureau-wide announcement numbering system. As suggested in this table, if a researcher applies for the project for Korea Agency for Infrastructure Technology Advancement (KAIA) among the NTIS' bureau-wide R&D project announcement information, the login process mentioned above is executed. Then, the KAIA's research management system checks the identification key using the announcement number from the NTIS '00000836' and shows the project application display to the researcher right away. Then, the researcher can move to the project application page immediately, assuming that [Apply for the Project] button is clicked.

Information linkage and utilization for bureau-wide application of R&D project

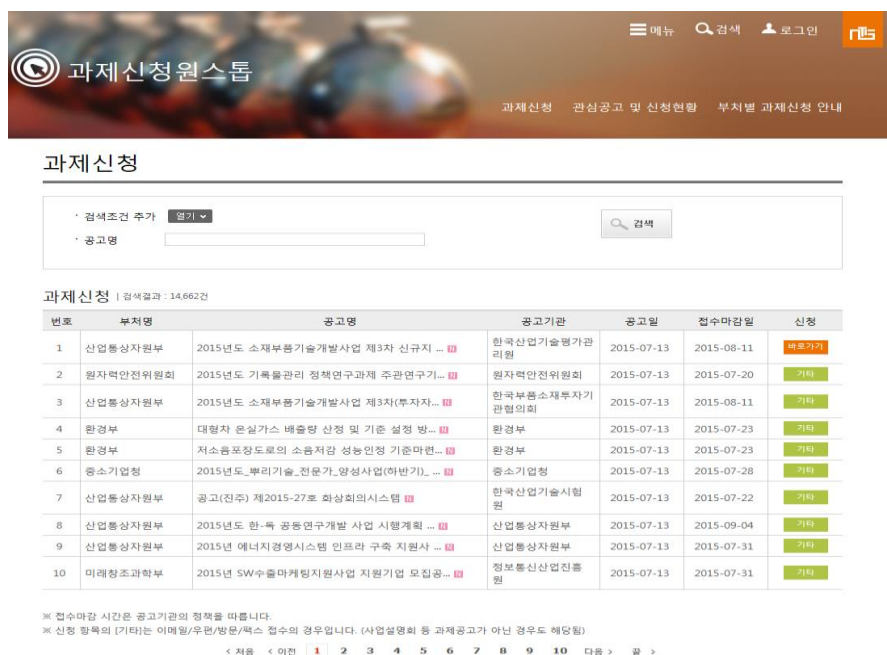
Once the national R&D project application is completed by the researcher, the research management system saves the information entered during the application in the database. Among this information, 'title of the application project,' 'name of the institute,' 'date of application,' 'project application number,' 'applicant's name' and 'name of the research management agency' are transferred to the NTIS in real-time through the project application information linkage API. As soon as the project application is completed in the research management system, it is defined in an XML format. The project application information collected through the encryption and decryption process is saved in the NTIS database in real-time by taking the applicant's science and technology engineer registration number as a primary key. To solve data integrity caused by inability to transfer data because of a fault occurring from the linkage of the project application information, the information linkage system with the NTIS project application database from the project application information database in each research management system is developed through batch processing.

The project application information collected in the NTIS is available in two aspects. First, when researchers want to inquire or edit the R&D project they applied for, they just need to log in to the NTIS once to search their bureau-wide R&D project application information. To inquire or edit the project application information, the NTIS request the login process described above to the research management system. Then, the projects can be searched and edited in the agency's system through the project application number. Second, the project application information is used in figuring out current status of bureau-wide project announcements and application information. All national R&D projects have bureaus and technology sectors. Therefore, the current status of project announcement and application by the following categories can be understood using the bureau-wide project application information collected in the NTIS: year, particular period, bureau, program, technology, and research management agency. This kind of statistical information can be used in planning a R&D project for the next year. It would also be available in analyzing what technology researchers are interested in and concentration of research activities.

Conclusion

To check the national R&D project announcements and apply for the project, researchers need only to log in to the research management agency's research management system and search the information they want. For the easy and efficient application of national R&D projects, this study discussed how the NTIS should collect and provide bureau-wide announcement information in realtime and its connection with each research management agency's research management system for integrated login, project application, and linkage of project application information. Researchers can get access to the NTIS and check bureau-wide announcement information without searching all project announcements. In addition, they can get announcement notice from the NTIS regarding the announcement they are interested in by registering their interested technology and keyword in the NTIS. This study also proposed the efficiency of the national R&D project application through integrated login between the NTIS and the research management system, project application through the utilization of bureau-wide announcement number and linkage of the project application information. Figure 3 shows an example of the bureau-wide announcement information provided by the NTIS while Figure 4 reveals a particular researcher's bureau-wide project application information.

In each bureau are defined the regulations and related forms for the management of national R&D projects. In particular, the input items or forms submitted by the researchers in project applications vary among bureaus. In addition, unnecessary information could be received. To improve the efficiency of national R&D project application, the standard input items and forms needed for project application should be defined and applied.



과제신청원스톱

과제신청 | 관심공고 및 신청현황 | 부처별 과제신청 안내

과제신청

검색조건 추가 | 열기 | 검색

과제신청 | 검색결과 : 14,662건

| 번호 | 부처명 | 공고명 | 공고기관 | 공고일 | 접수마감일 | 신청 |
|----|----------|-------------------------------|---------------|------------|------------|------|
| 1 | 산업통상자원부 | 2015년도 소재부품기술개발사업 제3차 신규지 ... | 한국산업기술평가관리원 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-08-11 | 바로가기 |
| 2 | 원자력안전위원회 | 2015년도 기록물관리 정책연구과제 주관연구기... | 원자력안전위원회 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-20 | 가하 |
| 3 | 산업통상자원부 | 2015년도 소재부품기술개발사업 제3차(투자자)... | 한국부품소재투자기관협의회 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-08-11 | 가하 |
| 4 | 환경부 | 대형차 온실가스 배출량 산정 및 기준 설정 방... | 환경부 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-23 | 가하 |
| 5 | 환경부 | 저소음포장도로의 소음저감 성능인정 기준마련... | 환경부 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-23 | 가하 |
| 6 | 중소기업청 | 2015년도_뿌리기술_전문가_양성사업(하반기)... | 중소기업청 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-28 | 가하 |
| 7 | 산업통상자원부 | 공고(진주) 제2015-27호 화상회의시스템 | 한국산업기술시험원 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-22 | 가하 |
| 8 | 산업통상자원부 | 2015년도 한-북 공동연구개발 사업 시행계획 ... | 산업통상자원부 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-09-04 | 가하 |
| 9 | 산업통상자원부 | 2015년 에너지경영시스템 인프라 구축 지원사 ... | 산업통상자원부 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-31 | 가하 |
| 10 | 미래창조과학부 | 2015년 SW수출마케팅지원사업 지원기업 모집공... | 정보통신산업진흥원 | 2015-07-13 | 2015-07-31 | 가하 |

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< 처음 < 이전 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 다음 > 끝 >

Figure 3. Details of bureau-wide national R&D project announcement



이현정 님 | 로그인 | 인기검색어 | 통합

NTIS | 부처별 과제신청서비스 | 소개 | 과제신청 | 부처별신청시스템 | MY페이지

NTIS홈 > MY페이지 > My신청

주요메뉴

My공고

My신청

My페이지

Total : 2건 (1/1)

| 번호 | 전문기관명 | 과제명 | 수행기관 | 신청일자 | 조회 |
|----|-------------|---------------------------|--------------|-------------|----|
| 2 | 한국해당과학기술진흥원 | 대사제정보 기반 동해안 화합물 연구 | 크리스피드, 크리... | 12.09~12.09 | 조회 |
| 1 | 한국해당과학기술진흥원 | 국가 해양생태계 종합관리 핵심기술개발 기획연구 | 크리스피드, 크리... | 12.09~12.09 | 조회 |

1

Figure 4: R&D project application status by researchers

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by the future business strategy research program of the Korea Institute of Science and Technology Information (KISTI) (K-15-L02-C05-S02).

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- [3] National Science & Technology Information Service, www.ntis.go.kr

The Inventory System Management under Uncertain Conditions and Time Value of Money

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The inventory system has an important role in supply chain management. Also, the system costs may be change via uncertain inflation. This study develops a new inventory model to determine ordering policy for deteriorating items with shortages under Markovian inflationary conditions. Since the far previous data don't have great impact on the inflation rates, considering the inflation changes as a Markov process is a logical assumption. In addition, we consider the changes of the cost of the items as a Continuous Time Markov Process. The inventory level is described by differential equations over the time horizon along with the present value method. The numerical example and a sensitivity analysis are given for illustration of the results.

Keywords: Supply Chain, Inventory Management; Markovian Costs; Deteriorating Items.

1. Introduction

Inventory models play an important role in operations research and management science. Inventory management is one of the main parts of any supply chain. To manufacturers, it entails managing product stocks, in-process inventories of intermediate products as well as inventories of raw material, equipment and tools, spare parts, supplies used in production, and general maintenance supplies. As a consequence of high inflation, it is important to investigate how the time value of money influences various inventory policies. Buzacott (1975) made the first attempt in this field that dealt with an economic order quantity (EOQ) model with inflation subject to different types of pricing policies.

If the rate of obsolescence, deterioration or amelioration not be sufficiently low, its impact on the inventory system modeling cannot be ignored. There are a few papers for obsolescing and ameliorating items. Moon, Giri, and Ko (2005) considered the ameliorating/deteriorating items on an inventory model with time-varying demand pattern. Against obsolescing and ameliorating items, the deteriorating inventory models under inflationary conditions are studied greatly. In a few of these works, deterioration rate is not constant. For example, Chen 1998, proposed an inflationary model with time proportional demand and Weibull distribution for deteriorating items using dynamic programming. Balkhi (2004a) presented a production lot-size inventory model where the production, demand and deterioration rates are known, continuous and differentiable functions of time. Shortages are allowed, but only a fraction of the stock out is backordered, and the rest is lost. Lo, Wee, and Huang (2007), developed an integrated production-inventory model with assumptions of varying rate of deterioration, partial backordering, inflation, imperfect production processes and multiple deliveries.

If the rate of obsolescence, deterioration or amelioration is not sufficiently low, its impacts on differentiable functions of time. Shortages are allowed, but only a fraction of the stock out is backordered, and the rest is lost. Most inventory systems for deteriorating items are considered in a constant deterioration rate, which will stay in continuance.

Some researches in inflationary inventory systems assumed time-varying demand rate. Datta and Pal (1991) investigated a finite-time-horizon inventory model with linear time-dependent demand rate when shortages are allowed. Yang, Teng, and Chern (2001) extended the inventory lot-size models to allow for inflation and fluctuating demand, which is more general than constant, increasing, decreasing, and log-concave demand patterns. Other works are performed by Chen (1998) and Balkhi (2004b). Several authors have considered finite replenishment rate for inflationary inventory systems. Sarker and Pan

(1994) surveyed the effects of inflation and the time value of money on order quantity with finite replenishment rate.

Another research is performed by Lo et al. (2007). The stock-dependent demand rate models are prepared with some researchers. Liao and Chen (2003) surveyed a retailer's inventory control system for the optimal delay in payment time for initial stock dependent consumption rate when a wholesaler permits delay in payment. The effect of inflation rate, deterioration rate, initial stock-dependent consumption rate and a wholesaler's permissible delay in payment is discussed. An efficient solution procedure is presented to determine the optimal number of replenishment, the time cycle and selling price. Maiti, Maiti, and Maiti (2006) proposed an inventory model with stock-dependent demand rate constant deterioration rate, which will stay in continuance and two storage facilities under inflation and time value of money where the planning horizon is stochastic in nature and follows exponential distribution with a known mean. Other efforts in inventory systems under inflationary conditions are performed under the assumption of the permissible delay in payments. Hang (2004) proposed an EOQ model for deteriorating items under inflation when the supplier offers a permissible delay to the purchaser, if the order quantity is greater than or equal to a predetermined quantity. Other models are prepared by Liao and Chen (2003).

The above mentioned papers have considered a constant and well-known inflation rate over the time horizon. Mirzazadeh and Sarfaraz (1997) presented a multiple items inventory system with budget constraint and the Uniform distribution for external inflation rate. These two recent models do not consider shortages and deteriorating items. Mirzazadeh (2007) surveyed effects of uncertain inflationary conditions on inventory models using the average annual cost and the discounted cost. Mirzazadeh et al. (2009) presented stochastic inflationary conditions with variable probability density functions (pdfs) over the time horizon and the inflation dependent demand rate. The developed model, also, implicates to a finite replenishment rate, finite time horizon, deteriorating items with shortages. The objective is the minimization of the expected present value of costs over the time horizon. Mirzazadeh (2010a) assumed the inflation is time-dependent and demand rate is assumed to be inflation-proportional. Mirzazadeh (2010b) proposed an inventory model with stochastic internal and external inflation rates for deteriorating items and allowable shortages. Ghoreishi and Mirzazadeh (2013) developed Joint optimal pricing and inventory control for deteriorating items under inflation and customer returns. Gholami-Qadikolaie et al. (2013) developed a stochastic multiobjective multiconstraint inventory model under inflationary condition and different inspection scenarios. Ghoreishi et al. (2014) presented optimal pricing and ordering policy for non-instantaneous deteriorating items under inflation and customer returns. The present article differs from previous researches on the following aspect. The inflationary changes over the time horizon have been considered. In most previous models, the inflation rate has been considered as a constant value. In a few models, the inflation rates have been assumed stochastic with known pdfs over the time horizon. In the real world, especially, for long-term investment and forecasting, the fluctuations in the inflation rate cannot be disregarded. Therefore there is a need to consider the inflationary changes and inventory control problem in a fluctuating inflation rate environment, and a Markovian inflationary modeling approach provides an effective mechanism to address this problem, because, the far previous data don't have great impact on inflation rate.

Markov chain, a well-known subject introduced by Markov in 1906, has been studied by a host of researchers for many years Chung (1960), Doob (1953), Feller (1971) Kushner & Yin (1997). Markovian formulations (see Chiang (1980), Taylor & Karlin (1998), Yang, Yin, Yin, & Zhang (2002), Yin, Zhang, Yang, & Yin (2001), Yin & Zhang (1997), Yin, Yin, & Zhang (1995) and the references there in are useful in solving a number of real-world problems under uncertainties such as determining the inventory levels for retailers, maintenance scheduling for manufacturers, and scheduling and planning in production management.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 includes the assumptions, notations and description of the inventory system. In Section 3, the objective of the problem is derived. Section 4 explains the solution procedure. Section 5 provides the numerical example to clarify how the proposed

model is applied. In section 6 the sensitivity analysis has been provided for validation of the theoretical results. The final section is devoted to the conclusion.

2. The assumptions, notations and description of the model

The following assumptions have been considered in this inventory system:

- (1) The inventory system costs are known at the beginning of the time horizon and during this time, they are increased with the internal and external inflation rates.
- (2) Inflationary rate changes as a discrete time Markov chain.
- (3) The demand rate is definite.
- (4) The replenishment rate is finite and lead time is zero.
- (5) A constant fraction of the on-hand inventory deteriorates per unit time.
- (6) The production rate is higher than the rates of consumption and deterioration. On the other hand, the inventory level will increase as the production continues.
- (7) Shortages are allowed and fully backlogged except for the final cycle.
- (8) The cost of items changes as a Continuous-Time Markov-Process, in each cycle except for the last cycle, over the time horizon.

The following notations will be used in this paper:

- r The discount rate.
- P The constant annual production rate.
- θ The constant deterioration rate per unit time, where $(0 \leq \theta \leq 1)$.
- λ Parameter of exponential distribution
- c Per unit cost of the item at time zero.
- S The ordering cost per order at time zero.
- H The fixed time horizon.
- i Inflation rate

Additional notations will be introduced later. The graphical representation of the inventory system is shown in Figure 1. The time horizon, H , is divided into n equal cycle each of length T so that $T=H/n$. Initial and final inventory levels are both zero. Each inventory cycle except the last cycle can be divided into four parts. The production starts at time zero and the inventory level is increasing. This fact continues till the production stops at time α . Then, the level of inventory is decreasing by consumption and deterioration rates. At the moment of kT , the inventory level leads to zero and shortages occur. During the time interval $[kT, \beta]$, we do not have any deterioration, and therefore the shortages level linearly increases by the demand rate. At time β , the production starts again and the shortages level linearly decreases until the moment of T . In this moment, the second cycle starts and this behavior continues till the end of $(n-1)$ cycle. In the last cycle, shortages are not allowed and each inventory cycle can be divided into two parts. The production stops at time $(n-1)T + \alpha$ and then the inventory level decreases until the end of time horizon.

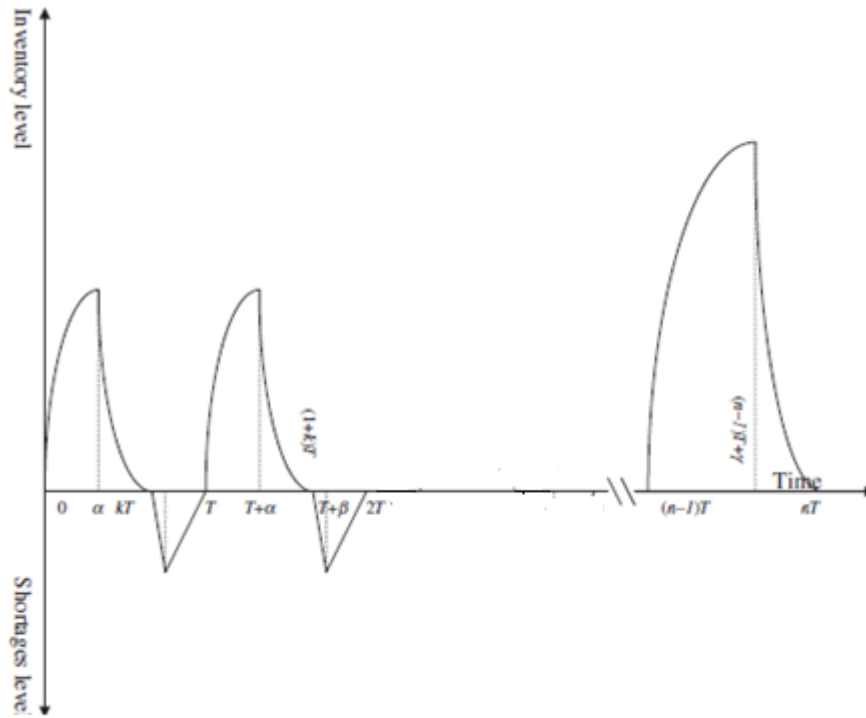


Figure1. Graphical representation of the inventory system.

3. The mathematical modelling and analysis

The inventory cycles is divided into four different parts. Let $I_i(t_i)$ denote the inventory level at any time t_i in the i th part of cycle ($i=1, 2, 3, 4$). The amount of deteriorated units during a given time interval depends on the on-hand inventory and the elapsed time in the system during the period of positive inventory, then during part of $[0, \alpha)$, with finite replenishment rate, the inventory level is governed by the following differential equation:

$$\frac{dI_1(t_1)}{dt_1} + \theta I_1(t_1) = P - D, \quad 0 \leq t_1 \leq \alpha \quad (1)$$

During $[0, kT)$, the inventory level can be described as follows:

$$\frac{dI_2(t_2)}{dt_2} + \theta I_2(t_2) = -D, \quad 0 \leq t_2 \leq kT - \alpha \quad (2)$$

During $[kT, \beta)$, we have no deterioration. Therefore, the shortages level is governed by

$$\frac{dI_3(t_3)}{dt_3} = -D, \quad 0 \leq t_3 \leq \beta - kT - \alpha \quad (3)$$

Finally, during $[\beta, T)$ the shortages level be represented by

$$\frac{dI_4(t_4)}{dt_4} = P - D, \quad 0 \leq t_4 \leq T - \beta \quad (4)$$

In the last cycle, shortages are not allowed and the inventory level is governed by the following differential equations:

$(I_i(t_i))$ denotes the inventory level at any time t_i in $(i-4)$ th part of last cycle that is $i = 5, 6$.

$$\frac{dI_5(t_5)}{dt_5} + \theta I_5(t_5) = P - D, \quad 0 \leq t_5 \leq \gamma \quad (5)$$

$$\frac{dI_6(t_6)}{dt_6} + \theta I_6(t_6) = -D, \quad 0 \leq t_6 \leq T - \gamma \quad (6)$$

The solutions of the above differential equations after applying the following boundary conditions:

$I_1(0) = 0$, $I_2(kT - \alpha) = 0$, $I_3(0) = 0$, $I_4(T - \beta) = 0$, $I_5(0) = 0$ and $I_6(T - \gamma) = 0$, are:

$$I_1(t_1) = \frac{P-D}{\theta} (1 - e^{-\theta t_1}), 0 \leq t_1 \leq \alpha \quad (7)$$

$$I_2(t_2) = \frac{-D}{\theta} (1 - e^{\theta(KT - \alpha - t_2)}), 0 \leq t_2 \leq kT - \alpha \quad (8)$$

$$I_3(t_3) = -Dt_3, 0 \leq t_3 \leq \beta - kT \quad (9)$$

$$I_4(t_4) = (P - D)(t_4 - T + \beta), 0 \leq t_4 \leq T - \beta \quad (10)$$

$$I_5(t_5) = \frac{P-D}{\theta} (1 - e^{-\theta t_5}), 0 \leq t_5 \leq \gamma \quad (11)$$

$$I_6(t_6) = \frac{-D}{\theta} (1 - e^{\theta(T - \gamma - t_6)}), 0 \leq t_6 \leq T - \gamma \quad (12)$$

Using the above equations, we can calculate the values of α , β and γ with respect to k and T . Solving $I_1(\alpha) = I_2(0)$ for α we have,

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right) \quad (13)$$

β can be calculated by solving $I_3(\beta - kT) = I_4(0)$

$$\beta = \frac{[P-D(1-K)]T}{P} \quad (14)$$

Finally, solving $I_5(\gamma) = I_6(0)$ for γ we have

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta T})}{P}\right) \quad (15)$$

3.1. Markov chain and Markov property

Markov chain is concerned with a particular kind of dependence of random variables involved. When random variables are observed in sequence, the distribution of a random variable depends only on the immediate preceding observed random variable and not on those before it. In other words, given the current state, the probability of the chain's future behavior is not altered by any additional knowledge of its past behavior. This is the so-called Markovian property. This paper considers changes of inflation rate as a Markov chain. Moreover surveys the changes of cost of the items in each cycle except for the last cycle as a Continuous Time Markov Process. This steps are contained in Appendix.

The objective of the problem is minimization of the total expected present value of costs over the time horizon. Considering ECP as the expected present value (EPV) of costs of purchasing, ECH as the EPV of costs of holding, ECS as the EPV of costs of shortages and ECR as the EPV of costs of replenishment, respectively. The total expected present value of costs over time horizon (ETVC) is:

$$\text{ETVC}(n, k) = \text{ECR} + \text{ECP} + \text{ECH} + \text{ECS} \quad (16)$$

The detailed analysis is given as follows:

The EPV of ordering cost (ECR)

Consider CR as the ordering cost, therefore,

$$\text{ECR} = \sum_{i=-2}^6 f(i) S (1 + (\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} e^{(-(r-i/100)(jT + \frac{[P-D(1-k)]T}{P})})) \quad (17)$$

The EPV of purchasing cost (ECP)

Let ECP_1 be the EPV of the purchase cost. The EPV of the purchase cost in the last cycle is shown with ECP_2 . The first purchase is ordered at time zero and equals to: $cP\alpha$. Then, next purchase will occur at time β . therefore,

$$ECP_1 = \sum_{i=-2}^6 f(i) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} c \cdot P \cdot \left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)}{\theta} \right) e^{-(j-1)(r-i/100)T} + \right. \\ \left. (c + c \left[\int_{\frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)}^{\infty} z \cdot \exp(-z \cdot t_1) dt_1 \cdot Q_{01} \right] \cdot \left(\int_{kT - \frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)}^{\infty} z \cdot \exp(-z \cdot t_2) dt_2 \cdot Q_{12} \right) \cdot \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. \left(\int_{\frac{(P-D(1-k))T}{P} - kT}^{\infty} z \cdot \exp(-z \cdot t_3) dt_3 \cdot Q_{23} \right) \right) \cdot \left(T - \frac{(P-D(1-k))T}{P} \right) \cdot e^{\left(-\left(\frac{[P-D(1-k)]T}{P} + (j-1)T \right) \left(r - \frac{i}{100} \right) \right)} \right) \right) \quad (18)$$

In the last cycle, one order will occur at time $(n-1)T$ and the order quantity is γP . the EPV of the purchase cost in the last cycle will be one of the following phrases:

$$ECP_2 = cp \left(\sum_{i=-2}^6 f(i) \left(\frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta T})}{P}\right) \right) e^{-(n-1)(r-i/100)T} \right) \quad (19)$$

The total expected purchase cost over the time horizon would be

$$ECP = ECP_1 + ECP_2 \quad (20)$$

The EPV of holding cost (ECH)

Let ECH_1 be the EPV of the holding cost. The EPV of the holding cost during the last cycle, can be defined with ECH_2 .

$$ECH_1 = \sum_{i=-2}^6 f(i) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} c_1 e^{-(j-1)(r-i/100)T} \int_0^{\frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)} \frac{(P-D(1-e^{-(\theta t_1)})) e^{-(r-i/100)t_1}}{\theta} dt_1 + \right. \\ \left. \int_0^{kT - \frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)} \frac{-D(1-e^{\left(\theta \left(kT - \frac{\ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)}{\theta} \right) - t_2} \right))}{\theta} e^{(i/100-r)t_2} dt_2 \cdot e^{\left(-\frac{\ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)}{\theta} (r-i/100) \right)} \right) \quad (21)$$

$$ECH_2 = c_1 \left(\int_0^{\frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta kT})}{P}\right)} \frac{(P-D(1-e^{-(\theta t_5)})) e^{-(r-i/100)t_5}}{\theta} dt_5 + \right. \\ \left. e^{-(r-i/100)(n-1)T} \int_0^{T - \frac{1}{\theta} \ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta T})}{P}\right)} \frac{-D(1-e^{\left(\theta \left(T - \frac{\ln\left(\frac{P-D(1-e^{\theta T})}{P}\right)}{\theta} \right) - t_6} \right))}{\theta} e^{-(r-i/100)t_6} dt_6 \right).$$

$$e^{(-(r-i/100)(n-1)T + \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \left(\frac{(P-D(1-e^{\theta T}))}{P} \right))} \cdot \left(1 - e^{-D \left(T - \frac{\ln \left(\frac{(P-D(1-e^{\theta T}))}{P} \right)}{\theta} - t_6 \right)} \right) \cdot e^{(-(r-i/100)t_6)} + \int_0^{T - \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \left(\frac{(P-D(1-e^{\theta T}))}{P} \right)} \frac{1}{\theta} dt_6 \cdot e^{(-(r-i/100)(n-1)T + \frac{1}{\theta} \ln \left(\frac{(P-D(1-e^{\theta T}))}{P} \right))} \quad (22)$$

So, the total EPV of the holding costs over the time horizon is

$$ECH = ECH_1 + ECH_2 \quad (23)$$

The EPV of shortage costs (ECS)

ECS show the EPV of the shortage costs. Shortages are not allowed in the last cycle.

$$ECS = \sum_{i=-2}^6 f(i) \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} c_2 \left(\int_0^{\frac{(P-D(1-k))T}{P} - kT} dt_3 \cdot e^{(-(r-i/100)t_3)} dt_3 \right) \cdot e^{-kT \left(r - \frac{i}{100} \right)} + \left(\int_0^{T - \frac{(P-D(1-k))T}{P}} (D-p) \cdot \left(-t_4 - T - \frac{(P-D(1-k))T}{P} \right) \cdot e^{-(r - \frac{i}{100})t_4} dt_4 \right) \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{(P-D(1-k))T \left(r - \frac{i}{100} \right)}{P} \right)} \cdot e^{-(j-1) \left(r - \frac{i}{100} \right) T} \right) \quad (24)$$

4. Model analysis

The problem is to determine the optimal values of n, k , so as to minimize the total expected inventory system costs. For this, the algorithm begins by setting discrete variable $n=1$, and takes the partial derivatives of $ETVC(n, k)$ with respect to k . Equating the partial derivatives to zero derives the following necessary conditions of optimality:

$$\frac{dETVC(n, k)}{dk} = 0$$

For a given value of n , derive k^* from the above equation. $ETVC(n, k^*)$ is derived by substituting (n, k^*) into Equation (21). Then, n increases by increment of one continually and $ETVC(n, k^*)$ drive again. The above stages repeat until the minimum $ETVC(n, k^*)$ can be found. The (n^*, k^*) and $ETVC(n^*, k^*)$ values constitute the optimal solution and satisfy the following conditions:

$$\Delta ETVC(n^*-1, k^*) \geq 0$$

$$\text{Where } \Delta ETVC(n^*, k^*) = ETVC(n^* + 1, k^*) - ETVC(n^*, k^*)$$

To ensure convexity of the objective function, the derived values of (n^*, k^*) must satisfy the following sufficient conditions:

$$\frac{d^2 ETVC(n, k)}{dk^2} \geq 0$$

5. Numerical example

The following numerical example is provided to clarify how the proposed model is applied. The time horizon, H , is 10 years. The company interest rate is 10% and the deterioration rate of the on-hand inventory per unit time is 0.01. The constant annual production rate is 5000 units. Also, let $r = \$0.2/\$/\text{year}$; $\theta = 0.01$; P

$= 5000$ units/year. The ordering, production, holding and shortage costs at the beginning of the time horizon are: $S = \$100/\text{order}$; $c = \$5/\text{unit}$; $c_1 = \$0.1/\text{unit}/\text{year}$; $c_2 = \$0.2/\text{unit}/\text{year}$ and the demand rate is $D = 500$.

The problem is to determine the optimal ordering policy for minimizing the EPV of the total inventory system costs ($ETVC(n, k)$). Considering the above information and using the numerical methods, the problem is solved and the results are illustrated in Table 1. It can be seen that the number of replenishment $= 2$ and time interval between replenishments is:

$$T^* = \frac{10}{2} = 5 \text{ year.}$$

The shortages occur after elapsing 39% of the cycle time. ($k^* = 0.39$). The minimum value of the $ETVC(n, k)$ with these values is 3 950 000.

Table 1. Optimal solution for numerical example

| N | k | ETVC (n,k) | N | k | ETVC (n,k) |
|---|-------|-----------------|-----|------|----------------|
| 1 | 0.39 | $0.587 * 10^7$ | 11 | 0.37 | $0.717 * 10^7$ |
| 2 | 0.39* | $0.395 * 10^7*$ | 13 | 0.39 | $0.793 * 10^7$ |
| 3 | 0.38 | $0.453 * 10^7$ | 15 | 0.39 | $0.870 * 10^7$ |
| 4 | 0.39 | $0.474 * 10^7$ | 20 | 0.37 | $0.106 * 10^8$ |
| 7 | 0.39 | $0.570 * 10^7$ | 50 | 0.39 | $0.224 * 10^8$ |
| 9 | 0.39 | $0.642 * 10^7$ | 100 | 0.38 | $0.420 * 10^8$ |

6. Sensitivity analysis

To study the effects of system parameters changes D , H , θ , r , s , p , c on the optimal cost, the replenishment time and k^* which is derived by the proposed method, a sensitivity analysis was performed. This fact is done by increasing the parameters by 20, 50, 90% and decreasing the parameters to 20, 50, 90%, taking each one at a time, and keeping the remaining parameters at their original values. The following conclusion can be derived from the sensitivity analysis based on table 2.

- (1) The number of replenishments (n) is highly sensitive to the change of the parameters D , s , and H , and is insensitive to changes in r , θ , c and p .
- (2) The optimal value of k is highly sensitive to the change of the parameters c , is moderately sensitive to r , and is insensitive to D , θ , H , p , and s .
- (3) The total expected inventory cost of the system is highly sensitive to the changes in the parameters D , r , H , and p and insensitive to θ , s , c .

Table 2. Effects of changes in model parameters on n , k and optimal expected system cost

| | | -90% | -50% | -20% | 0% | 20% | 50% | 90% |
|----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| D | n | 13 | 29 | 37 | 41 | 45 | 50 | 58 |
| | k | 0.42107 | 0.41255 | 0.41439 | 0.40161 | 0.41876 | 0.42964 | 0.63476 |
| | ETVC | $0.640.10^7$ | $0.734.10^7$ | $0.814.10^7$ | $0.238.10^8$ | $0.326.10^8$ | $0.431.10^8$ | $0.587.10^8$ |
| P | n | 40 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 42 | 42 |
| | k | 0.43621 | 0.42431 | 0.41466 | 0.40161 | 0.41351 | 0.40713 | 0.42368 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----------|-------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| | ETVC | 0327. 10 ⁷ | 0.452. 10 ⁷ | 0.240. 10 ⁸ | 0.364. 10 ⁸ | 412. 10 ⁸ | 0.593. 10 ⁸ | 0.713. 10 ⁸ |
| S | n | 130 | 58 | 46 | 41 | 38 | 34 | 29 |
| | k | 0.40761 | 0.40161 | 0.41162 | 0.40161 | 0.41261 | 0.40652 | 0.41161 |
| | ETVC | 0.425. 10 ⁸ | 0.365. 10 ⁸ | 0.274.. 10 ⁸ | 0.198. 10 ⁸ | 0.166. 10 ⁸ | 0.154. 10 ⁸ | 0.131. 10 ⁸ |
| c | n | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 |
| | k | 0.42541 | 0.59191 | 0.43328 | 0.41161 | 0.39944 | 0.37557 | 0.35281 |
| | ETVC | 0.123. 10 ⁸ | 0.140. 10 ⁸ | 0.158. 10 ⁸ | 0.198. 10 ⁸ | 0.239. 10 ⁸ | 0.264. 10 ⁸ | 0.291. 10 ⁸ |
| H | n | 4 | 20 | 33 | 41 | 50 | 63 | 85 |
| | k | 0.40161 | 0.40161 | 0.41161 | 0.40171 | 0.40161 | 0.40181 | 0.40161 |
| | ETVC | 0.634. 10 ⁷ | 0.246. 10 ⁸ | 0.287. 10 ⁸ | 0.328. 10 ⁸ | 0.3714. 10 ⁸ | 0.425. 10 ⁸ | 0.572. 10 ⁸ |
| r | n | 39 | 40 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 42 | 42 |
| | k | 0.43651 | 0.42341 | 0.42341 | 0.42242 | 0.42341 | 0.43534 | 0.43265 |
| | ETVC | 0.353. 10 ⁸ | 0.243. 10 ⁸ | 0.156. 10 ⁸ | 0.14. 10 ⁸ | 0.176. 10 ⁷ | 0.145. 10 ⁷ | 0.123. 10 ⁷ |
| θ | n | 41 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 41 | 41 |
| | k | 0.43451 | 0.42253 | 0.41563 | 0.42433 | 0.42213 | 0.42342 | 0.41356 |
| | ETVC | 0.343. 10 ⁸ | 0.435. 10 ⁸ | 0.265. 10 ⁸ | 0.188. 10 ⁸ | 0.147. 10 ⁸ | 0.108. 10 ⁸ | 0.889. 10 ⁷ |

7. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, an inventory model under markovian inflationary conditions with shortages for deteriorating items has been proposed. Also, it considers the changes of cost of items in each cycle except for the last cycle as a Continuous-Time Markov-Process, over the time horizon. The objective is determining the optimal values of the time interval between replenishment over the time horizon to minimize the total costs of the inventory system. The numerical example and Sensitivity analysis have been provided for evaluation and validation of the theoretical results.

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Appendix A

In this study, it is assumed that inflation rate changes as a markov chain and then it will be to predict and estimate the stationary distribution of inflation rate in Country of Iran in the 1991 to 2011. Let: X_n : inflation rate in the state n . Now, by considering inflation rate from April 1991 to April 2011, the transfer matrix will be determined.

Assumptions:

1. Each state has long been a month.
2. Using of the wholesale price of goods, inflation rate is calculated in each situation compared with the previous situation.
3. Inflation rate in the state n than the state $n-1$ is calculated as follows. The inflation rate of $(n-1)$ -th month to n -th month is:

$$X_n = [(C_n - C_{n-1}) / C_{n-1}] \cdot 100$$

C_n is price index in month n and is reported by the Iranian Central Bank. The base year (the year in that the index is set equal to 100) is 2004.

Annual growth of index in the year t than the year $t-1$: $[\text{Average in the year } (t) - \text{average in the year } (t-1)] / \text{average in the year } (t-1)$

Table 3. The total price index of consumer goods and services in urban areas (2004=100)

| Month \ Year | Apr | May | June | July | Aug | Sep | Oct | Nov | Dec | Jan | Feb | Mar | Average of year | Inflation rate |
|--------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----------------|----------------|
| 1991 | 6.7 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.5 | 6.6 | 6.6 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 7.0 | 7.1 | 7.3 | 6.8 | 90 |
| 1992 | 7.4 | 7.6 | 7.6 | 7.7 | 7.9 | 8.1 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.4 | 8.6 | 8.9 | 9.4 | 8.2 | 20.7 |
| 1993 | 9.8 | 9.6 | 9.8 | 9.8 | 9.9 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 10.1 | 10.3 | 10.5 | 10.9 | 11.2 | 10.2 | 24.4 |
| 1994 | 14.7 | 11.5 | 11.7 | 11.7 | 11.9 | 12.1 | 12.4 | 12.5 | 13.0 | 13.3 | 13.7 | 14.4 | 12.5 | 22.9 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1995 | 22.2 | 15.0 | 15.3 | 15.5 | 15.7 | 16.3 | 17.1 | 17.1 | 17.4 | 18.1 | 19.5 | 20.8 | 16.9 | 35.2 |
| 1996 | 30.3 | 23.7 | 23.9 | 23.7 | 23.9 | 24.5 | 25.0 | 25.6 | 26.4 | 27.2 | 27.8 | 28.4 | 25.2 | 49.4 |
| 1997 | 34.5 | 30.0 | 29.8 | 29.9 | 30.0 | 30.4 | 30.8 | 31.2 | 31.9 | 32.3 | 32.8 | 33.3 | 31.0 | 23.2 |
| 1998 | 40.9 | 35.1 | 35.3 | 35.3 | 35.7 | 35.9 | 36.0 | 36.3 | 36.9 | 37.8 | 38.9 | 39.4 | 36.4 | 17.3 |
| 1999 | 49.5 | 41.0 | 41.0 | 41.5 | 41.7 | 42.1 | 42.6 | 43.2 | 44.4 | 45.0 | 45.8 | 46.9 | 43.0 | 18.1 |
| 2000 | 56.0 | 49.9 | 50.3 | 49.9 | 50.2 | 50.6 | 51.2 | 51.5 | 52.8 | 53.9 | 54.6 | 55.3 | 51.6 | 20.1 |
| 2001 | 62.7 | 56.1 | 56.9 | 56.4 | 57.0 | 57.5 | 57.8 | 58.4 | 59.6 | 60.0 | 60.5 | 61.6 | 58.2 | 12.6 |
| 2002 | 70.1 | 62.7 | 62.8 | 63.3 | 63.7 | 64.0 | 64.4 | 64.7 | 65.9 | 66.9 | 67.7 | 68.8 | 64.8 | 11.4 |
| 2003 | 82.6 | 71.7 | 72.8 | 73.0 | 73.2 | 74.4 | 74.2 | 75.3 | 76.7 | 78.3 | 79.8 | 80.0 | 75.0 | 15.8 |
| 2004 | 94.5 | 83.4 | 84.6 | 85.2 | 85.4 | 85.3 | 85.9 | 86.9 | 88.9 | 90.0 | 90.6 | 92.1 | 86.7 | 15.6 |
| 2005 | 110.0 | 95.7 | 96.9 | 98.1 | 98.7 | 98.9 | 100.1 | 102.9 | 102.0 | 103.3 | 104.5 | 106.4 | 100.0 | 15.2 |
| 2006 | 115.8 | 109.1 | 108.9 | 108.2 | 108.0 | 108.4 | 109.2 | 110.3 | 111.4 | 112.3 | 113.3 | 115.1 | 110.4 | 10.4 |
| 2007 | 135.3 | 116.9 | 119.0 | 118.9 | 119.4 | 121.7 | 123.4 | 124.4 | 127.4 | 129.9 | 131.6 | 133.0 | 123.5 | 11.9 |
| 2008 | 168.0 | 136.3 | 138.1 | 139.2 | 140.0 | 143.5 | 145.7 | 148.2 | 152.4 | 154.8 | 158.2 | 162.9 | 146.2 | 18.4 |
| 2009 | 194.0 | 170.8 | 174.6 | 175.5 | 178.7 | 185.7 | 188.7 | 190.2 | 192.6 | 191.0 | 191.1 | 191.9 | 183.3 | 25.4 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2010 | 214.0 | 196.4 | 199.9 | 200.0 | 202.1 | 202.9 | 203.1 | 204.2 | 206.8 | 208.1 | 208.1 | 211.9 | 203.0 | 10.8 |
| 2011 | 256.1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table 4. Monthly rate of change of the price index (monthly inflation rate) from 1991 until 2011

| Month Year | Apr | May | June | July | Aug | Sep | Oct | Nov | Dec | Jan | Feb | Mar |
|---------------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| 1991 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 5 |
| 1992 | 4 | -2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| 1993 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| 1994 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 7 | 6 |
| 1995 | 6 | 6 | 0.84 | -0.84 | 0.84 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| 1996 | 2 | 0 | -0.66 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1997 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0.56 | 0.27 | 0.83 | 1 | 2 | 0.52 | 1 |
| 1998 | 3 | 0.24 | 0 | 1 | 0.48 | 0.95 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 1999 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | -0.7 | 0.58 | 0.58 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 2000 | 1 | 0.17 | 1 | 1 | -0.87 | 0.87 | 1 | 0.52 | 2 | 0.67 | 0.83 | 1 |
| 2001 | 2 | 0 | 0.15 | 0.79 | 0.63 | 0.47 | 0.62 | 0.15 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2002 | 0.43 | 0.85 | 1 | 0.27 | 0.27 | 1 | -0.26 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2003 | 21 | 0.96 | 1 | 0.7 | 0.23 | -0.11 | 0.7 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2004 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.61 | 0.2 | 1 | 0.79 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2005 | 3 | -0.18 | -0.18 | -0.91 | -0.81 | 0.37 | 0.73 | 1 | 0.99 | 0.8 | 0.89 | 1 |
| 2006 | 0.6 | 0.94 | 1 | -0.08 | 0.42 | 1 | 1 | 0.18 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2007 | 1 | 0.37 | 1 | 0.72 | 0.57 | 2.5 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| 2008 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 0.51 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 0.79 | 1 | -0.51 | -0.52 | 0.41 |
| 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.05 | 0.5 | 0.49 | 0.09 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.49 | 0.48 | 1 |
| 2010 | 0.99 | 0.42 | 0.69 | 0.46 | 1 | 0.76 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0.99 | 2 | 3 |
| 2011 | 0.39 | | | | | | | | | | | |

Figures in Table 3 indicate the state space. Since elements of the state space must be integer, we convert the figures as follows. Suppose k is an integer.

If $X_n \in (k-0.5, k+0.5)$ then $X_n = k$

So, we have:

$S = \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

Table 5

| Month Year | Apr | May | June | July | Aug | Sep | Oct | Nov | Dec | Jan | Feb | Mar |
|---------------|-----|-----|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1991 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 5 |
| 1992 | 4 | -2 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| 1993 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| 1994 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 7 | 6 |
| 1995 | 6 | 6 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| 1996 | 2 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1997 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 1998 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 1999 | 5 | 1 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 2000 | 1 | 0 | 1 | -1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2001 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------|---|----|---|----|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|---|
| 2002 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 2003 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2004 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2005 | 3 | -1 | 0 | -1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2006 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2007 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| 2008 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | -1 | -1 | 0 |
| 2009 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 2010 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 |
| 2011 | 0 | | | | | | | | | | | |

Table 6. Frequency Matrix A

| | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| -2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| -1 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 2 | 12 | 18 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 4 | 16 | 68 | 14 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 | 93 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

f_{ij} represents the number of observations from the state of i to the state of j .

Transfer Matrix:

This matrix calculated using of the frequency matrix and considering of the following equation:

$$P_{ij} = f_{ij} / \sum f_{ij} \quad j = -2 \dots 6$$

Table 7. Transfer Matrix A

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| -2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| -1 | 0 | 0.125 | 0.5 | 0.375 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 0.05 | 0.35 | 0.52 | 0.029 | 0 | 0.029 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0.03 | 0.15 | 0.64 | 0.13 | 0.019 | 0.009 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 0.04 | 0.09 | 0.75 | 0.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 0.125 | 0.5 | 0 | 0.5 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0 |
| 4 | 0.25 | 0 | 0.25 | 0 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|------|------|---|------|---|------|
| | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0 | 0.33 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.33 |

Calculation of the stationary distribution of inflation rate

f(i) : stationary distribution of inflation rate

$[(f(-2), f(-1), f(0), f(1), f(2), f(3), f(4), f(5), f(6)]$. $A = [(f(-2), f(-1), f(0), f(1), f(2), f(3), f(4), f(5), f(6)]$

So we have:

$f(-2) = 0.01, f(-1) = 0.06, f(0) = 0.3, f(1) = 0.15, f(2) = 0.3, f(3) = 0.07, f(4) = 0.04,$

$f(5) = 0.03, f(6) = 0.04$

Appendix B

Now, we assume that the cost of items in first (n-1) cycle changes as a Continuous - Time Markov-Process. If we assume that cost of items in each cycle at time T (j-1), (j=1...n) is c_0 , then we want to predict the value of cost of items at time T(j-1)+ β , (j=1...n). We consider state space as follow:

$S = \{c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3\}$

To determine a Continuous – Time - Process, we must set $Q_{xy}, f_x(t)$.

T_x : Stopping Time at the state of x .

$f_x(t)$: Probability Density Function of T_x .

Q_{xy} : **Probability of Change** from the state of x to the state of y. $x \neq y$.

$Q_{xx} = 0$, $\sum_y Q_{xy} = 1$

The Continuous -Time Process have the Markovian property, if **$f_x(t)$ has an exponential distribution. So, we have:**

$$f_x(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t} \quad t \geq 0$$

If we assume states of c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3 as the poisson distribution in each cycle, so the interval space between each two subsequent states follows an exponential distribution. So, we have:

$$P_{xy}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{y-x}}{(y-x)!} & y \geq x \\ 0 & y < x \end{cases}$$

$P_{xy}(t)$: **The probability that the Process starts from the state of x and be in the state of y at $t \geq 0$.**

$$P_{xy}(t) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{y-x}}{(y-x)!}$$

$$P'_{xy}(t) = -\lambda e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^{y-x}}{(y-x)!} + \frac{(y-x)\lambda e^{-\lambda t} (\lambda t)^{y-x-1}}{(y-x)!}$$

$$P'_{xy}(t) \Big|_{t=0} = q_{xy}$$

$$p'_{xy}(0) = \begin{cases} \lambda & y = x + 1 \\ -\lambda & y = x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$P_{xx}(t) = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$P'_{xx}(t) = -\lambda e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$P'_{xx}(0) = -\lambda$$

$$q_{xx} = -\lambda, \quad x \geq 0$$

$$q_{xy} = \begin{cases} \lambda & y = x + 1 \\ -\lambda & y = x \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$q_x = -q_{xx}$$

$$Q_{xy} = -\frac{q_{xy}}{q_{xx}}$$

So, we have:

$$Q_{xy} = 1 \quad \text{if } y = x+1$$

The time horizon, H , is divided into n equal cycle each of length T . Then, we assume that Process is in the state of c_0 at time $T(j-1)$, ($j=1\dots n$), process is in the state of c_1 at time $T(j-1)+\alpha$, ($j=1\dots n$), process is in the state of c_2 at time $T(j-1)+\beta$, ($j=1\dots n$), and process is in the state of c_3 at time $T(j-1)+\beta$, ($j=1\dots n$).

X: The Probability of that the process stays at c_0 for at least α units of time and then enters to c_1 ,

Y: The Probability of that the process stays at c_1 for at least $(kT-\alpha)$ units of time and then enters to c_2 .

Z: The Probability of that the process stays at c_2 for at least $(\beta-kT)$ units of time and then enters to c_3 .

So, Changes of the process of the state c_0 to the state c_3 is X. Y. Z, or as follows:

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t_1} dt_1 \cdot Q_{c_0 c_1} \cdot \int_{kT-\alpha}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t_2} dt_2 \cdot Q_{c_1 c_2} \cdot \int_{\beta-kT}^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda t_3} dt_3 \cdot Q_{c_2 c_3}$$

The Evolution of Malaysia School Building Design

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Abstract

Designing an educational building may have a variety of concepts and theories that should have been considered. The objective of this paper is to analyze the design condition of the existing public school buildings and investigate the presence of pattern and connection of design, history, and policy in order to find out the reason behind the architectural design influenced at that time. However, there are matters that can't be avoided like climate, history, economic, social, and politics as well as land matters, culture, programs, and many more. The design of public school buildings in Malaysia is not exempt from all of these matters. Policies, guidelines, and legislation need to be followed by the designer on top of architectural theories and concepts which are appropriate and suitable for the current situation in order to meet the nation's needs. Since attaining independence in 1957, policies and regulations have been introduced in constructing a new building. Many buildings, including schools have been built in urban and rural areas to fulfil the needs of the people and for the future national development. However, there are some few documented sources to help us understand design evolution of this particular kind of building. Being able to understand the background design of the school buildings, along with examining physical features, history, and policies are being studied in-depth. Towards that end, a preliminary study has been carried out to investigate the physical condition of the existing structures and to understand the connection of history and policies on matters that influenced the designer, especially educational planners and architects pondering the designing of a school. Observation of different types of primary school building designs in urban areas of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia were sought and visited. There are 180 different primary schools in Kuala Lumpur alone and 70 schools were selected after categorizing it into year it was built based on Malaysia Ministry of Education data. Photographic evidence of the selected schools were analyzed in finding the various designs that may have several useful design features. The results obtained showed that the school can be categorized into 2 types, which is either using a standard or a new concept (one-off) based on the design adaptation. These 2 types of design have been divided into subgroups according to the architectural design similarity and the design features of the subgroups were studied in-depth to find the relationship of design, history, and policy of the existing school buildings.

Key words: School building, design evolution, architectural features, history, policy

What the Time Logs Tell Us: Predicting Students' Learning Performance in Video-based Learning Environments

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Background

With the advance of smart technologies and mobile devices, the current society is getting full of diverse digital contents. Most of digital contents in Web are freely or inexpensively accessible as learning resources. People can prepare their careers with diverse types of learning environments. With open learning which became even more famous as MOOC (Massive Open Online Courses), informal learning with diverse social media, and mobile learning allows people to learn anytime and anywhere are all examples. Such contemporary learning environments highlight several important characteristics. First, it is *self-paced*. Since the learning goal is set by students themselves, the depth and quality of learning are also controlled by their curiosity and interests, understanding level, and preferred learning styles. Second, the wealth of contents are contrasted with the *limited time* and human capacity to digest. No one can be free with the constraints of time. Third, consequently, learning process can be *quantified* by *time* related variables.

This study began with the above three unique phenomena that are often captured by contemporary education and considered as a dominant learning model for future. In this context, this study attempted to predict students' final learning achievement by using their online login patterns in the video-based and self-paced learning environment. Given the video-based online learning materials to college students during one semester, this study aimed to predict their learning performance by using their login actions that are recorded and accumulated with their *time* stamps. Recently, the approaches to use such a log data left in LMS have received great attention among researchers and practitioners in the area of educational data mining and learning analytics (Brown, 2011; Elias, 2011; Johnson, Smith, Willis, Levine, & Haywood, 2011; Mostow et al., 2005; Myatt & Johnson, 2014; Romero, Ventura, & García, 2008). Since the analysis of students' data can be utilized to provide personalized feedbacks to students, the learning analytics applications have been positively reviewed (Park & Jo, 2015; Verbert, Duval, Klerkx, Govaerts, & Santos, 2013).

Research Questions

As a part of *learning analytics* process model including "analysis, prediction, and action" process (Jo, 2013), this study focused on the initial stage: analyzing students' online behavior patterns and finding important time-related variables that predict their learning performance. Also, this study analyzed the power of prediction models according to different time flows throughout the whole learning period. The specific research questions were as follows:

- What kinds of log variables can be extracted and formed from the time stamps left in the learning platform where online students in accessing to video-based instruction?
- How long, frequently, and regularly have the online students access to the learning platform and video-based instruction?
- What extent to do the time-related log variables predict online students' learning performance? Is there significant time-point to present the best prediction?

Methods

For this study, a total of 318 students, who took the online course entitled “Management Statistics” in the first and second semester of 2014, at a private university located in Seoul, Korea, participated. The course required students to access the learning platform. As a full online course, students were required to attend the virtual learning platform to watch video lectures, take online quizzes, and submit individual tasks for successful completion. Every activity occurred in the virtual classroom, except the midterm and final exam. In order to answer the above research questions, a two-phase analysis was conducted.

The First Phase: Data Extraction and Exploration

The time stamps that online students left in the system need to be converted to a format to analyze and find meaningful implications. Throughout the multiple data-mining processes, the major log variables were 1) LMS access (Total Login Time, Total Login Frequency, and Login Regularity), 2) Video playback (Time on Movie, Frequency on Movie, and Regularity on Movie). The detailed descriptions of each variable are as follow. Also, each variable was expanded to weekly based variables.

- TLT (Total Login Time) - A time period from the beginning of login to the point of time the learner finish it
- TLF (Total Login Frequency) - Adding up the total numbers of login
- LIR (Login Regularity) - Standard deviation of average login interval
- TM (Time on Movie) - A time period from the beginning of the playing movie to the point of time the learner finish it
- FM (Frequency on Movie)- Adding up the total numbers of playing movie
- RM (Regularity on Movie)- Standard deviation of average playing movie interval

Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) was first conducted to find students' online behavioural patterns that present how long, frequently, and regularly they logged into the learning platform, specifically to the video-based instructional material. EDA, promoted by John Tukey (1976), is an approach to summarize main characteristics of data, often with visual methods, and find meaningful implications beyond the formal statistical model or hypothesis testing, called Initial Data Analysis (IDA) (Wikipedia, 2015). In this phase, data exploration including the above variables were conducted in each time period ranging from the 1st week to the 15th week.

The Second Phase: Regression Analysis

In this course, learning performance was measured by final grade at the end of the semester. The final score was assigned for attendance (5%), individual assignments (10%), mid-term exam (35%) and final exam (50%). When learners studied with movie clips by playing them over a certain amount of time, the attendance was automatically acknowledged in the virtual campus course managing system. If learners didn't watch the videos within the lecture period, their attendance score was deducted 0.5 points per each lecture. Individual assignments provided twice, and mid-term, final exam were conducted in off-line classrooms.

In order to generate prediction models of online students' learning performance based on the time-related log variables extracted in the 1st phase of analysis, multiple regression analysis was repeatedly conducted for each week time point to compare the prediction power with adjusted R square values.

Research Progress and Discussion

Currently, this study is at a stage to write up the results of analysis which will be presented and discussed at the conference. Since the data-set developed from student's time stamp there was a large quantity of raw data and the work required extensive data-mining techniques. The analysis results indicated that the time-related log variables can be useful to understand their learning process and to provide proper feedback and facilitations to students. In the extension of the previous studies (Essa & Ayad, 2012; Pistilli & Arnold, 2010) there was the attempt to utilize the prediction algorithm to provide an early

warning system. This study is expected to contribute to developing advanced learning support tools that improve students' learning and performance effectively. The future directions with the current studies will be discussed in terms of current students' learning experiences in their video-based instruction and their learning process in regard to how they spend their time for learning.

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Case Studies on Modeling & Simulation-based Manufacturing Innovation

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Abstract

HPC-based Modeling & Simulation (M&S) can dramatically reduce time and costs spent for product design and testing. However, it is hard for domestic companies to have technical knowledge, hardware and software for the M&S. This study identifies the tasks that should be solved to strengthen the use of the M&S from a platform perspective.

1. Introduction

In advanced countries, high-tech IT technology-based manufacturing innovation including High-Performance Computing (HPC) has been promoted as a core means to determine manufacturing competitiveness. An enormous amount of time and costs spent for product design and testing have seen considerably savings through HPC-based virtual M&S. In particular, the U.S. has facilitated the utilization of HPC in small and mid-sized enterprises by planning 'National High-tech Manufacturing Strategies' and operating the National Digital Engineering and Manufacturing Consortium (NDEMC). The European Union (EU) has also promoted 'Horizon 2020' and the PRACE project with a goal of establishing a pan-European HPC ecosystem.

The M&S is a next-generation product development environment which verifies and solves errors that occur during the manufacturing process through the realization of a quasi reality in a virtual world by utilizing the physical phenomena of reality using HPC technology. As a result, product development time and costs can be significantly reduced.

During the product design process, product development accounts for 20% of total costs while decision making is 80%. Therefore, decision making during the product design is a key element in deciding the success or failure of innovative product development.

As the industrial applications of HPC further expand, a demand for related businesses has skyrocketed. For example, Boeing has diminished the number of test airplanes up to 90% and shortened development time by 83% using the M&S in the manufacture of a new aircraft. Furthermore, Rocket Crafter was able to reduce development and production cost by 60% and 50% respectively with the M&S-based hybrid rocket engine.

At present, South Korea's technology development structure relating to the manufacturing industry is concentrated on M&S technology which could be utilized soon (within 1-2 year(s)). Because modeling technology is weak, especially, it is needed to develop a strategy which can enhance manufacturing competitiveness from a long-term perspective. As many advanced countries actively take advantage of HPC to promote manufacturing innovation, developing a convergence strategy between high-tech science & technology (ex: HPC, simulation, and visualization, etc.) is required and the manufacturing industry must establish a plan to support modeling technology and manufacturing activities from a long-term standpoint.

This study aims to derive policy challenges which can promote the utilization of M&S through case studies on the development of HPC-based M&S technology and establish a promotion strategy.

2. M&S applications

2.1 Domestic cases

NUC CO., LTD. has adopted M&S for the development of a new squeezing system. The ultimate goal of the M&S was to improve juice extraction rates to over 80% and at the same time reduce costs by securing an alternative material. For this, M&S-based, fluid-structure interaction analysis and pressure analysis according to material changes were conducted. Through simulation, four different models were compared and improvements were derived. Then, juice extraction rates were predicted through stage classification analysis on the screw surface. Based on these analysis results, it was possible to produce new products with 82.6% juice extraction rates. This compares to conventional products, costs, development time and development costs which were reduced by 35%, 66% and 25% respectively.

Samsung Heavy Industries' 'Digital Drying System' reduced submarine design & construction time by over 50% by simulating the shipbuilding process using a high-performance computer in advance. Thanks to the system, the world's leading shipbuilder has been able to improve productivity by over 10%, resulting in the reduction of costs by more than KRW 30 billion annually.

2.2 Global car makers' cases

Chrysler constructed the Computer Aided Three-dimensional Interactive Application (CATIA)-based information infrastructure. After having information on virtual operations such as modeling and processing exchange among departments, the American automobile manufacturer was able to reduce car development time to 18 months through the early detection of design errors, cooperative design, and development. To manufacture cars which are effective in absorbing shock, Ford performs various shock tests which require a long period of time (more than a year for a conventional prototype) more than 20 times a week through virtual simulation.

The M&S is a key factor for the realization of an online collaborative environment. In 2009, the automotive industry innovator Local Motors built the 'Rally Fighter' through a design competition for the first time in the world. For this, cloud sourcing technology which collects and collaborates a huge amount of knowledge provided by designers, engineers, manufacturers and automobile maniacs (20,000 people in total) in cyberspace was applied. As a result, it was able to manufacture a vehicle in just 12-18 months, 5 times faster than the time needed to produce a conventional car with just US 2-10 million dollars which is as little as one tenth of current car manufacturing costs.

3. Challenges for the expansion of M&S utilization

As confirmed through case analysis, job productivity and efficiency dramatically improve through the M&S-based product design and development. In Korea, however, it is hard for most companies but conglomerates to have professional knowledge and manpower to utilize M&S. Because it is impossible to secure and operate advanced hardware resources such as HPC, in particular, and there should be new policies aimed at improving the competitiveness of the manufacturing industry.

Diverse nurturing policies are available. In particular, this study derived policy issues by focusing on the fact that companies are very reluctant to develop their own software due to the expansion of high-price foreign commercial software. First, there is the need to develop and distribute low-cost but high-performance software to substitute for high-price foreign software programs. Second, there should be a support on the commercialization of the software developed by colleges or research institutes for research purposes. Third, a pre-/post-processor which provides an intimate user interface should be developed and distributed for easy and accurate R&D simulation. Lastly, there is the need to develop and distribute a library which can interwork related infrastructure on a real time basis to allow the software developed by domestic firms to be used in the HPC environment.

To cope with these tasks above, however, integrated technology which can link and interwork diverse data and systems should be developed. In other words, there should be an approach to develop a platform which can support decision making during the product design and processes in diverse industrial fields, not just development of a particular software for M&S.

Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC): Extended Version or New Idea?

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Abstract

Development of IMC conceptualization in the academic domain has reaped many pros and cons since its inception in the early 1980s. Although the meaning of IMC has become similar among its main thinkers, it is still identified academics who consider IMC as an extended version of advertising and marketing communications disciplines. Responding to these meaning differences on IMC there is a third party which is important to be heard, IMC educators. Given that educators are one of the stakeholders who are not only responsible for education of the next generation of practitioners and academics, but also define the IMC in classroom, the educator is thus at the vanguard of the deployment of IMC disciplines to the next generation. What is taught in the classroom is reflected in the syllabus made. The syllabus itself is a manifestation of teaching and the main guideline in the teaching-learning process. Based on that idea, the syllabi review includes a written record of how lecturers accept, adopt and implement IMC which is an important method of documenting the development of IMC teaching. This study was conducted *firstly*, to explain the meaning of IMC that is taught in Magister program in Indonesia which is traced from the syllabus as a lecture material; and *secondly*, to explore the gap between state of the art of IMC conceptualization and the understanding of IMC subjects taught in masters programs in Indonesia. A qualitative approach is used in this study and five syllabuses of masters programs in major universities in Jakarta used as a sample in which it is assumed that the universities and its educators in Jakarta, both public and private, are the trend setters of educational models in Indonesia.

Keywords: IMC, Syllabus, Magister Program, and Educator.

Digital Experience and Citizen Participation in Bridging Ethnic Divide: An Analysis of Young Generation in Malaysia

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Information and communication technologies provide communities, service providers, and advocates with mechanisms through which service can be more effectively and efficiently provided to the young generation. The young generation and these technologies can unite to create an agenda for positive change that ultimately will benefit them and society. The role that information and communication technologies may play and the impact they may have on the ethnic divide and national unity among the young generation in a multicultural society is not well understood, and there are gaps in the evidence base surrounding the possibilities and approaches for national integration that involves information technologies. This paper investigates the usage of ethnic media and issues related to the ethnic divide in multicultural Malaysian society. A national sample of 1640 respondents between the ages of 21 and 40 years were interviewed in January 2011. The high penetration of information and communication technology among the young generation provides an opportunity for active citizen participation that could lead to a better understanding of the citizens' rights and responsibilities, which can form the basis for bridging the ethnic divide.

Key words: Ethnic divide, citizenships, young generation, participation

Estimating the Willingness to Pay for Business Online Banking Services

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Abstract

This study estimated SMEs' willingness to pay (WTP) for new business online banking services. The data was collected interviewing 400 SMEs' managers in the UAE free zones. We utilized contingent valuation method (CVM) to estimate the amount which SMEs are willing to pay for the service. Multiple regression was used to identify the characteristics of the owner and the company which affect the amount of WTP. The CVM results reveal that the average WTP of the sample SMEs for the service lies between \$ 95 to 470 per month. The regression results show that some variables such as: the age and level of education of the owner, the level of imports and cost of getting to the bank branch to perform banking transactions affect the level of willingness to pay.

Key words: contingent valuation method, willingness to pay, business online banking

Identifying Key Success Factors for Effective SME Advertising in the Tshwane area in South Africa

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Abstract

The high failure rates of SMEs, due to lack of managerial skills led to the initiation of training workshops at municipalities in the Tshwane area. The Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) skills development community engagement project SME skills transfer workshops are being presented on a monthly basis to these municipalities. The aim of this project is to improve managerial skills of small business owners of the formal and informal sectors in the Tshwane municipality area. In South Africa there has been an increase in the number of new small businesses, which increases competition among businesses. Advertising has been seen as a means to aid these small businesses to differentiate them from the competition.

Quantitative, exploratory research was used in the form of questionnaires with managers and owners of small businesses participating in the workshops.

The most successful advertising medium used by small businesses in the area according to the conducted research is wall painting. With an increase of tourists to the area, the Internet should be considered a more popular form of advertising.

Keywords: Tshwane area advertising, advertising media, Small business competition in the Tshwane area, advertising key success factors, word of mouth, taxi rank advertising

Introduction

Advertising for small businesses in the Tshwane area is becoming increasingly important. As infrastructure improves and more funds are invested in this area an increased number of small businesses emerge. If these businesses wish to survive it is imperative that they have effective advertising campaign in place and the correct means to implement it. It is also important that the business utilises effective low-cost advertising media to market their product/service successfully. With the development of the Tshwane area underway, the townships' large population and the increase in tourism to the area, a great potential exists for small businesses to emerge, survive and grow. It is for this reason that small businesses are, and will continue to emerge in the Tshwane area as it becomes a commercial hub. This will result in greater competition among businesses and a flexible and destabilised business environment. Knowledge of advertising media and means to successfully implement such media is imperative for maintaining a competitive advantage and achieving overall success in the business environment.

As part of our departmental community engagement programme, SME skills transfer project workshops are being presented on a monthly basis by a team of facilitators and one project leader, Prof Louise van Scheers. The aim of this project is to improve managerial skills of small business owners of the formal and informal sectors in the Tshwane municipality area. As we believe community engagement should benefit the community as well as our department, we use these workshops as an opportunity to develop SME skills to improve the community. Therefore, we achieve these by liaising with industry, creating a culture of teamwork at the department and using the research to publish research articles in accredited journals.



Lecturers and participants focusing on SME skills development workshops

Advertising helps to build a business identity and also helps people identify and remember the value and function of a product or service (Maravilla, 2000; Du Plessis *et al*, 2009:34). Small business will have to consider cost-effective advertising media due to the size of these businesses and lack of finances when starting a business. Due to the increasing number of small businesses in the Tshwane area, increased competition occurs, resulting in a greater need for differentiation in order to survive. Advertising provides the means to accomplish this. Therefore, it is important for these businesses to be able to identify, select and implement effective advertising programmes.

Aim and objectives of the research

This research report aims to determine the advertising media that small businesses are using in the Tshwane area to promote sustainable development and to reach the aim of the study. The objectives of this study were:

- To identify key success factors that make advertising in the Tshwane area effective
- To gather perceptions of small business owners concerning advertising media which are currently used

Literature review

Advertising is any form of mass communication about a product or services that is paid for by an organisation or an identified sponsor. Also, advertising helps sell products and helps companies build a product brand according to Maravilla (2000). Du Plessis *et al*. (2009:56) define media as a communications channel or a group of channels used to convey information, news, entertainment and advertising message to an audience. Two major advertising media types exist: broadcast media and print media. Television and radio are broadcast media, while newspapers, magazines, billboards, direct mail and leaflets are examples of print media. A small company in the Tshwane area would probably need to use different advertising to a larger company in more developed areas, such as advertising in taxis and various outdoor advertising media.

The Tshwane Area

The Tshwane area is being reinvented as a feasible centre of commercial and cultural activity (Anon, 2009; Thale, 2009). The government has made attempts to upgrade the overall standard of living in the Tshwane area by planting trees and providing basic amenities to parts of the townships (Anon, 2009). Thale (2009) explains that the Baralink project is an example of such new developments, promising to improve the overall infrastructure of the area and encourage the growth of a viable business environment. According to Thale (2009), this activity will lead to the emergence of a multitude of small businesses in the area. Therefore, a comprehensive advertising campaign is vital for these new businesses to survive and succeed.



SME of the Tshwane area

The Tshwane area is fast becoming a commercial hub with an increasing number of small businesses opening every year. This has led to increased competition in the area. Thus, it has become increasingly important for businesses to differentiate themselves from their competitors. This can be done effectively through the use of advertising; therefore it is necessary to be able to identify relevant advertising opportunities for these businesses.

Advertising

Advertising is a tool that can be used for companies to differentiate themselves and their product from their competition. Since the Tshwane area is becoming a commercial hub with more business opening, companies will need to use these tools to gain an advantage over other companies. It is important for business owners to understand the meaning of marketing, marketing communication and advertising before they implement any changes. Advertising can be defined as any non-personal form of mass

communication about a product or service which is paid for by an organisation or an identified sponsor (Du Plessis *et al*, 2009:31). Russell and Lane (2006:26) agree with this and mention that advertising is usually delivered through a form of mass communication. Thus, the key differentiating elements that define advertising are that it is a paid-for message, and the message is controlled by the advertiser. Advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor (Cohen, 2009:5).

Advertising objectives

Advertising objectives are important to a company as Cohen (2009:123) observes because they will encourage the introduction and selection of consistent advertising alternatives. Also, they offer the company a standard against which it can evaluate the results of the advertising. Advertising can also be used to support other elements in the marketing mix. This can improve the effectiveness of the firm's total marketing strategy with the ultimate objective of increasing sales. Advertising objectives are specific outcomes that are to be accomplished through advertising (Russell *et al*, 2006:24). The following different objectives a company may want to obtain from its advertising campaign are (Cohen, 2009:123):

- Increasing the number of customers: Advertising can help a company to be able to turn non-users into users, attract users from competitor's brands and help former users to become interested in a particular product again.
- Increasing total demand: A company may use an advertising campaign in order to increase the total demand for a product so that the company's share will generate sales volume.
- Attracting non-users: A company advertising campaign's objective may be the attracting element of non-users in an effort to increase the number of customers.
- Marketing mix objectives: When a company wishes to introduce a new product, a product modification, or a new package, an advertising campaign is usually prepared to provide support.

Advertising media

Media is defined as a communications channel or a group of channels used to convey information, news, entertainment and advertising messages to an audience (Du Plessis *et al*, 2009:56). Choosing the right media to carry a company's message is critical for the success for a company's advertising (Anon, 2001). There are two major advertising media: broadcast media such as television and radio, and print media such as newspapers, magazines, billboards, direct mail and leaflets (Du Plessis *et al*, 2009:41). Television, radio, newspapers, magazines, out of home advertising, direct response and direct mail advertising are all forms of advertising media (Russell *et al*, 2006:221). Mass media such as newspapers, magazines, radio and television are especially well suited for delivering advertisements (Sissors & Bumba, 2006:7).

Key factors to making advertising successful

Advertising messages that are novel or unusual are more likely to attract attention and stand out among the rest of the information surrounding them. According to Foxall *et al*. (2008:54) other attention getting stimulus factors that can make a company's advertising more successful are the size of the message, its placement in the environment, the colour of the advertisement, and how vibrant it is. It is important that consumers are exposed to a constant message from the advertising company. Egelhoff (2004) believes that this can be done by advertising regularly. Regular advertising is important even when a maximum level of awareness is already achieved. When an advertisement is repeated after a while it is possible for previous levels of awareness to be obtained again. Advertising campaigns do not have to be continuous, but they should be repeated at carefully regulated periods.

Key factors when advertising in black townships

When advertising in a black township, black and white people should be used in the advert, or even blacks only (Morris, 2002:95). One should not only use white people only in adverts for the black

market. This representation helps the black consumer appreciate that the product is a universal product used by all. Advertisers must use situations and humour that black people can relate to (Morris, 2002:95). Sporting personalities should be used with care; the reason being biases could result from opposing team supporters. English should be used when advertising to people in the townships because most black people do understand English. There are so many different black languages that they can become confusing, even for the black consumer.

By reviewing various literatures on advertising opportunities for small business, with specific reference to the Tshwane area, one can see that although there are many different forms of advertising not all such media are necessarily suitable. This is due to factors such as cost, specific target markets and illiteracy.

Research methodology

The purpose of this research was to determine advertising media that SME workshop participants use in the Tshwane area. One hundred SME workshop participants completed the questionnaire during the SME workshops between March and May 2012. Quantitative, exploratory research was chosen for the research design. The questionnaire questions were developed to achieve the objectives of the study and contributing to the phenomenon of interest.

Analysis of research results

Advertising media

The questionnaire was designed to include the aim and objectives of the research. The researchers specifically formulated these questions to find detailed information that will justify the research report. Four open ended questions were used in the questionnaire to ask respondents information about the advertising media currently used in the Tshwane area. These questions also asked about the most successful advertising media for small businesses in the Tshwane area. They further asked about what are the key success factors that make advertising in the Tshwane area successful.

Advertising media used in the Tshwane area

Question 1 of the questionnaire asked respondents what advertising media are currently used by small businesses in the Tshwane area. Identifying the different advertising media small businesses in the Tshwane area use is the basis of the report. It is therefore very important to ascertain what advertising media current small businesses in the Tshwane area are using. Figure 1 shows which advertising media were chosen by small businesses owners and managers interviewed for the research report.

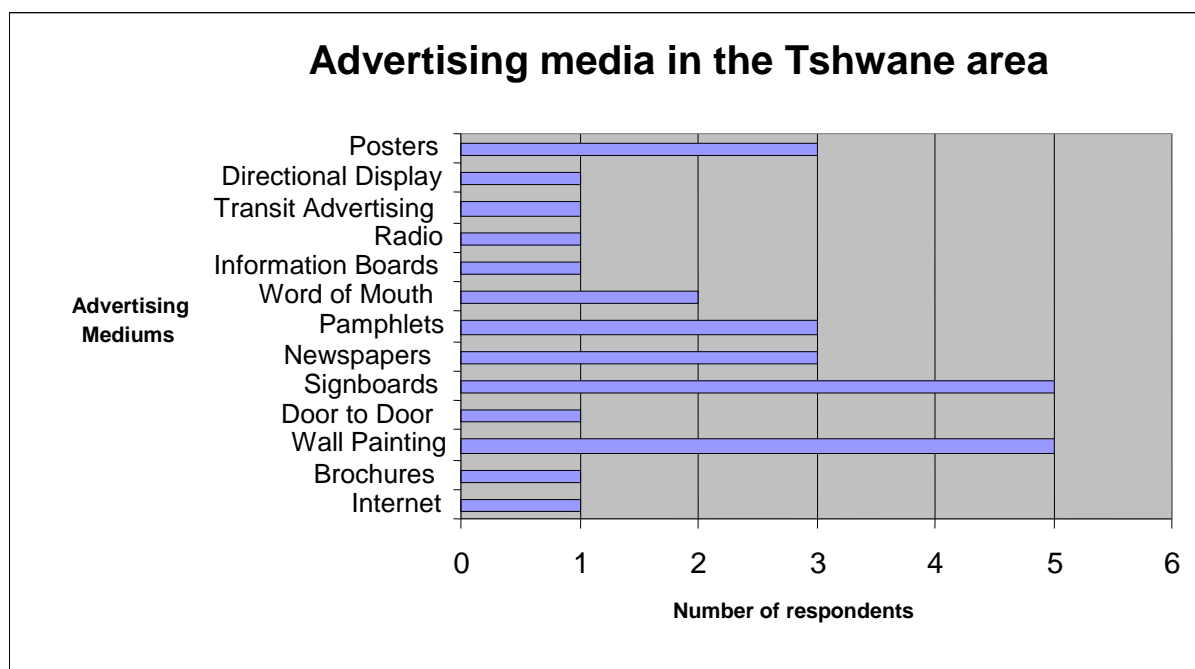


Figure 1: Advertising Media Used by Small Businesses in the Tshwane Area

Figure 1 indicates the results of question 1 of the questionnaire. This shows the advertising media used by small businesses in the Tshwane area by counting the number of respondents which have chosen each advertising media. According to figure 1, the most commonly utilised advertising media by small businesses include: brochures, the Internet, pamphlets, signboards, door-to-door, local newspapers, radio, shopping centre information boards, company cars, posters, directional signboards, product displays, word of mouth and wall painting.

Fifty-six percent of the respondents found that the Internet can be especially useful to reach external target markets such as tourists as it allows anyone in the world with a computer and an Internet connection to have access to the businesses information. This is essential as tourists allow these small businesses to expand their consumer base, thus increasing profits. This agrees with the literature of Anon (2001) and Stirling (2003) that states that the Internet allows a company to target a worldwide audience.

According to 35% of the respondents, brochures are a widely used advertising media utilised by small business in the Tshwane area. Brochures are usually made available at locations that are most likely to be frequented by the target market. This ensures that the correct type of consumer is targeted and money is not wasted. The respondents indicated that brochures are made available at various tourist sites in the Tshwane area such as the Hector Petersen Memorial due to the large amount of tourists who visit the area. This allows for a wider consumer base to be targeted.

The survey indicates that a substantial number of small businesses in the Tshwane area make use of wall painting in order to advertise their businesses. This is attributed to the fact that wall painting is inexpensive and if placed in the right area it can be seen by a large amount of people. Wall paintings can be seen on a variety of walls and surfaces all over the area. Morris (2002:103) also echoes the sentiment that wall painting is an outdoor advertising media that is widely used by businesses in the Tshwane area.

Figure 1 illustrates that only 10% of the respondent found that door-to-door promotions and signboards are a favourite advertising method used by small businesses in the Tshwane area. This agrees with Morris (2002:106), as mentioned earlier in the article, that this form of advertising occurs when a business employs “runners” who can conduct door-to-door sampling and hand out pamphlets with information of their product. Door-to-door provides an effective way of ensuring that a company’s product sample gets to the consumer. Signboards can be hand or professionally made, and are erected outside companies to serve not only as a form of advertising but also indicate to possible clients where the business is situated. The survey indicated that signboards are a reasonably cheap advertising media for small businesses in the area to use.

Three of the respondents, according to figure 1 regard community newspapers and pamphlets as advertising media available to small businesses in the area. However, newspapers are not widely utilised by small businesses in the area as other forms of advertising due to the price of advertising in them. Morris (2002:92) observes that newspapers are an effective way of advertising in townships because they enjoy a fairly high penetration rate. This agrees Du Plessis *et al.*, (2009:59) that pamphlets are cheap to produce and to distribute. Pamphlets are flexible in design and easy to modify to display the latest specials. The respondents add that the individuals who hand out the pamphlets can be given t-shirts or wear display boards over their shoulders displaying the company’s details and product. This is an effective way to increase awareness of the companies brand around the townships.

Figure 1 also shows that two respondents considered word of mouth as an advertising method used by small businesses in the area. Word of mouth is a cost-effective advertising media which is suited for small businesses, especially situated in areas such as the Tshwane area. The area is a densely populated community in which positive information about a business can easily be communicated among people. This agrees with the literature of Foxall *et al.*, (2008:27) word of mouth communication is an excellent form of advertising and can be more effective than formal advertising. According to the respondents for word of mouth to be a successful advertising media a small business needs to offer a high quality product

or service. Satisfied consumers who spread positive information about the business are seen as more credible and are trusted by other potential clients.

Shopping centre information boards, radio and company cars (see figure 1) are all other forms of advertising that are used by small business in the Tshwane area. Morris (2002:92) states that radio is one of the most effective forms of advertising in black townships as the majority of people living in the townships listen to the radio on a regular basis. By contrast, the respondents inferred that only the larger or more successful small businesses can afford to use radio as an advertising media as it may become costly especially when the business wishes to reach a large number of people.

Shopping centres provide a useful advertising media through their information boards. These boards provide an opportunity for small businesses in the Tshwane area to advertise fairly cheaply. Here A4 size information sheets with the company name and contact details are placed on these boards and often tear offs can be used in order to allow potential clients to tear the number of the company off the page. These are useful because potential clients do not need to copy down or remember the number, they will have a copy printed out for them.

Several respondents mentioned the use of directional display boards, especially if a small business is situated off the main road. These boards can easily and inexpensively be made at home and can be placed from the main road to the small business itself; making it easier for new clients to find the business. One respondent added that product displays can also be used as an advertising media and can be set up on the side of busy roads and in busy public places. These displays allow consumers to view the product and identify and associate the product with the company. Morris (2002:102) agrees that product displays can be used as an advertising media and can be placed in busy areas such as store outlets and community centres.

Figure 1 also indicates that one respondent believes that company cars branded with the businesses name and relevant contact numbers are a media used by small businesses in order to advertise in the area. Due to the high amount of traffic in the area people have time to take notice and remember information on the car.

The respondents also indicated in figure 1 that posters are used as advertising media. Thus, they display the company name and contact details as well as the business's slogan or perhaps a picture of the business's product. According to Morris (2002:94) billboards and posters are a widely utilised outdoor advertising media.

Successful advertising media in the Tshwane area

The second question in the questionnaire asks the respondents what the most successful advertising media is in the area. Due to the large amount of advertising media mentioned by the respondent in the previous question it was important to find out which of the advertising media selected were viewed by the respondents as the most successful. Another reason for finding out which advertising media were the most successful is due to the fact that advertising is expensive for small businesses and therefore it is very important to find out which advertising media are the most effective in a particular environment. Figure 2 indicates which are the most successful advertising media used by small businesses in the area.

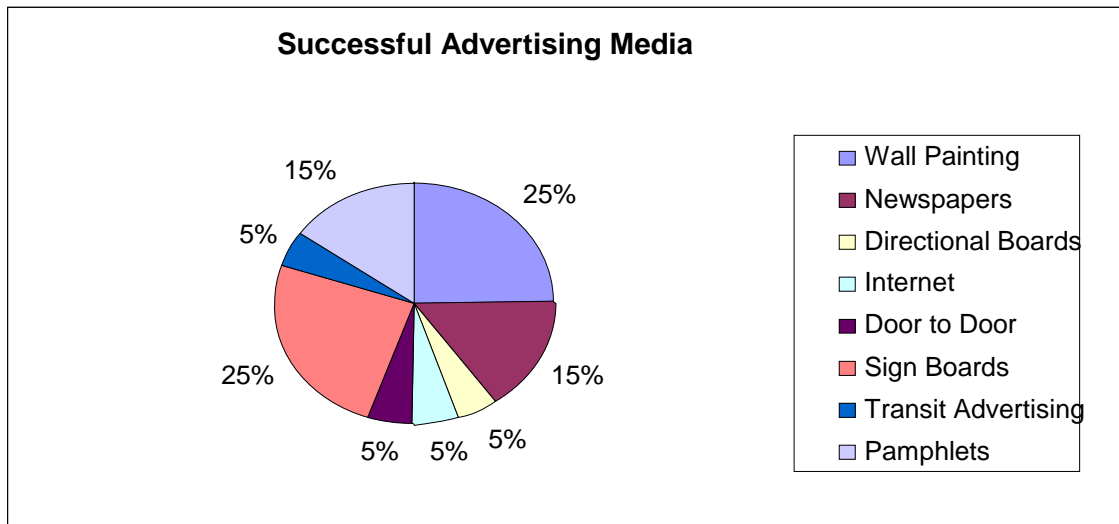


Figure 2: Successful Advertising Media Used in the Tshwane area

Figure 2 indicates the most successful advertising media used by small businesses in the area according to the survey. There are numerous different advertising media indicated this is due to the vast diversity between the small businesses interviewed. According to figure 2, 25% of the respondents believe that wall painting is a very successful advertising media for small businesses in the area. This is possible, as wall painting is not a very expensive advertising media. Also, this is valuable as small businesses often do not have huge advertising budgets; so cost becomes an important factor when considering advertising media. Wall painting is useful as it gives a business creative freedom and allows advertisements to include bold, bright, eye-catching designs, making for very effective advertising. This sentiment is echoed by Russel *et al* (2006:341).

The respondents also pointed out that a company's name, telephone number and product or service can also be painted on the facade of the small business. This provides a cost effective method for the business to stand out and differentiate itself from its competitors. It also assists consumers in that it allows them to easily identify the business, which is imperative. Morris (2002) states similar requirements for a business to stand out against its competitors.

Fifteen percent of the respondents indicated that newspapers provide a useful and effective advertising medium, particularly local, community newspapers. They also indicated that it is an expensive media and a company has to advertise in a newspaper regularly for it to be successful, which increases costs. For this reason newspaper advertising is not suited to most small businesses. Therefore, newspapers are not utilised by many small businesses in the Tshwane area. Du Plessis *et al* (2009:104) support this but still maintain that it is inexpensive when compared with television as an advertising media.

Figure 2 shows that only 5% of the respondents believe that directional boards provide an effective method in order for small businesses in the Tshwane area to advertise. This form of advertising can prove to be a viable option for small businesses because they can be home made and therefore extremely cost effective. Directional boards are particularly useful in directing potential clients to a small business's location, especially if the small business is not located on the main roads that may make them more difficult to locate in a densely populated area such as the area. This media is not expressed in the literature and adds a new dimension in determining which advertising media will be effective in order for small businesses in the Tshwane area to advertise.

The Internet is an effective advertising media according to 5% of respondents. Because of the increase in tourists to the area, tourism is an important market and the Internet allows for a cost effective way to communicate with this market. This agrees with Du Plessis *et al* (2009:349) that Internet advertising is a cost effective advertising media. Email appears to be an affordable method of advertising that allows

small businesses in the Tshwane area to communicate directly with potential clients anywhere in the world. This is also the assumption made by Du Plessis *et al* (2009:344). The respondents felt that not enough small businesses are using the Internet as an advertising media, but they foresee this changing in the near future. They foresee more people in the Tshwane area becoming computer literate and small businesses in the area which have made the Internet accessible to the general public.

Five percent of the respondents (see Figure 2) indicated that pamphlets and door-to-door promotions are effective advertising media. Door-to-door promotions allow a two-way conversation to take place between the consumer and the business representative. In an area such as the Tshwane, which is densely populated, many houses can be visited in a short period of time. This makes door-to-door promotions more cost effective than in many other areas.

Figure 2 shows that 25% of the respondents indicated that signboards placed outside the small business are an important form of advertising for small businesses in the Tshwane area. Signboards erected outside the small business allows for potential clients to identify the small business' location, name and service. Signboards outside the small business should show its contact numbers and trading hours allowing small businesses to differentiate themselves from similar businesses.

Five percent of the respondents judged that transit advertising is effective. This involves boards being placed with the business name and contact details on various cars and taxis. This advertising media is effective because it is inexpensive and also allows a greater exposure time, which means a large amount of people will see this form of advertising. This agrees with Morris's (2002:102) statement that advertising on company cars and taxis is an effective way of advertising in the Tshwane area.

Key success factors for advertising in the Tshwane area

The last question asked in the questionnaire asks respondents what the key success factors that make advertising in the Tshwane area effective are. This is important for the researcher to ascertain because advertising needs to be effectively implemented for it to be a success for any small business. Respondents informed the researcher of the key success factors that made their companies advertising a success which is indicated in figure 3.

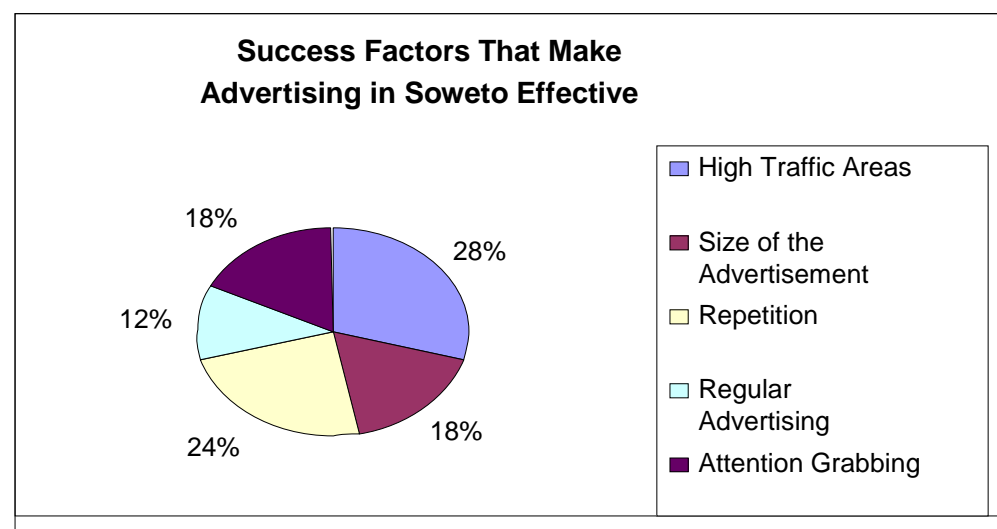


Figure 3: Success Factors that Make Advertising in the Tshwane area Effective

Figure 3 indicates the success factors that make advertising in the area effective. The answers were obtained from respondents' responses to question 3 of the questionnaire. Figure 3 shows that 28% of the respondents stated that in order for outdoor advertising to be effective as an advertising media, it needs

to be placed in areas of high traffic in the area. This is essential because the higher the number of people who see the advertisement, the higher the response rate will be. This agrees with Morris (2002:94) as he suggests that outdoor advertising such as wall painting and posters is only effective when placed in high traffic areas where the opportunity of them being seen is high.

The respondents added that main roads and shopping centres are recommended high traffic areas in which to advertise. This is especially viable for media such as wall painting, product displays, posters and directional posters. Businesses should be placed on these main roads where they will be seen by a dense flow of people. By doing so, they will acquire more customers than business which are situated on side streets away from the flow of people and traffic.

Taxi ranks were also mentioned as another area in which many potential clients gather and would therefore be a successful location for advertising. The reason for this is that a majority of people living in the area make use of public transport. Therefore, a taxi rank is an important place for small business to target an advertising campaign.

According to the respondents, when advertising in high traffic areas, there are usually many different businesses advertising in the same area. So, it is important for a small business to make their advertising stand out from the rest. As shown in figure 3, 18% of the respondents stated that advertising needs to stand out from the other advertisements that it is surrounded by. This can be done by making the advertisement more eye-catching than other advertisements in the area. The respondents suggested that this can be done, for example by using a light background on the wall such as white and then paint the writing in a darker colour such as red.

Figure 3 indicates that 18% of the respondents thought that the size of the advertisement can also make advertising more effective. According to the respondents, to achieve this, small businesses can make the advertisement large enough to be seen. Also they can use bold print that can be read easily by a passenger in a moving car. The respondents add that when advertising on main roads, cars are travelling faster and people are generally too busy to notice every advertisement. Therefore, advertisements in these areas should be large, easy to read and eye catching. When erecting a signboard outside the business, the small business must ensure that it is large enough to be read clearly and seen easily. Thus, this will make it easier for potential clients to locate the business. The respondents add that for an advertisement to be successful, it is very important for it to be attractive and its layout needs to be appealing.

The respondents added that when using outdoor advertising and transit advertising, the name of the company, number, product or service and even a slogan can be used in the advertisement as indicated in figure 3. It is very important that the advertisement is not cluttered with too much information that makes it increasingly difficult for passing potential consumers to read it especially when driving.

Twenty-four percent of the respondents claimed that repetition is essential to the success of a business's advertising efforts (see Figure 3). When a potential client sees the advert they may not make use of the business straight away, but through repeated and frequent viewing of the advertisement, they may need the product in future. That is, when the potential client needs that particular product or service they will then remember the advertised product and then will buy from that business. It is important for the advertising company to place advertisements all over a selected area, thus increasing the amount of times people notice the advertisement in a short period of time. This is helpful in increasing memory retention. The respondents added that repetition is important when using all forms of advertising. The more people see the advertisement, the higher the chance of it being remembered when needed. According to the respondents, repetition is also important when using posters as an advertising media. This is because posters are smaller than billboards and painted walls, meaning they are not as easily read by the target market. Posters must be placed close together in a line on a busy road so they can be read by passing motorists each section at a time. The respondents state that posters are used on main roads and that many posters need to be used for it to be successful.

Figure 3 shows that 12% of the respondents thought that regular observation of a small business's name and product is very important; this is achieved by advertising regularly. The respondents state that advertising must be conducted regularly in order to remind consumers of the business and its offerings on a regular basis. Regular advertising keeps clients and potential clients informed about specials and the latest product news, which increases their likeliness to buy the businesses products or services. The respondents added that regular advertising is imperative when handing out pamphlets as potential consumers often do not read or lose the pamphlets after receiving them. When using pamphlets as an advertising media, large amounts need to be handed out for pamphlets to be an effective advertising media. Pamphlets must also be handed out on a regular basis, when conducting door to door advertising, it is important for it to be conducted regularly for it to be successful. This is because different people hold varying schedules, so different people will need to be reached at different times.

The Tshwane area is becoming an area which is fast becoming a commercial hub. Research findings have shown that the business environment in the Tshwane area is changing with more business starting up in the area. Advertising has been proven to help companies differentiate their business and products from the competition. Findings have shown that advertising is a viable method in which a small business can differentiate its business and products from increasing competition that has been changing the business environment in the Tshwane area.

Recommendations

Selected small businesses in the Tshwane area were analysed and advertising media used in the Tshwane area was also identified. Respondents identified the following advertising media: brochures, the Internet, pamphlets, signboards, door-to-door, local newspapers, radio, shopping centre information boards, company cars, posters, directional signboards, product displays and wall painting.

Due to the cost associated with advertising and the limited budget small businesses in the Tshwane area have for advertising, it is important for any small business to choose the best advertising media available for their business. The selected media were chosen by small businesses in the Tshwane area due to the cost effectiveness, their ability to reach certain customers and their effectiveness in an environment such as the Tshwane area. The following media were chosen: wall painting, newspapers, directional boards, Internet, pamphlets, door-to-door, and transit advertising.

For advertising to be successful it needs to be implemented correctly and key success factors must be identified. According to the survey, the main success factor for advertising is the area which is chosen to place the advertisement. Advertising should be placed in high traffic areas where the advertisement can reach a higher proportion of the selected population. It was also found that if advertising is repeated regularly in this way, there is a higher chance of the advertisement being recalled from memory. Repetition of the advertisement in short period of time is also very important as it helps a person initially remember the advertisement. The size, colour, graphics and writing of the advertisement all have an effect on the advertising campaign and helps potential clients differentiate the advertisement from surrounding advertisements. This is especially necessary in areas which are cluttered with competitor's advertisement.

Based on the outcome of the research the following recommendations should be considered:

- New and old small businesses in the Tshwane area need to advertise for their small business to succeed.
- Wall painting is a successful advertising media in the Tshwane area but in the future new advertising media should be looked at due to advertising clutter and limited space.
- Door-to-door advertising is a successful advertising media in the Tshwane area and should be implemented by current small businesses and should be considered by future companies entering the area. It was observed that during the research that the majority of household in the area had at least one adult member of the family at home through the majority of the day. This helps with door to door advertising/promotions because they will have an increase hit rate.

- With an increase of tourist to the area, the Internet should be considered a more popular form of advertising in the area.
- More research in advertising media that can be used by small business in the Tshwane area and in similar commercial environments should be conducted.
- In densely populated areas such as the Tshwane area, word of mouth is an important method of advertising. It is therefore important for small businesses in the area to maintain a high level of customer service and make sure their products are of a high quality.
- It is imperative for small businesses in the Tshwane area to erect signboards by their businesses building. This provides a dual function; it shows potential clients where the business is located and is a form of advertising by helping potential clients to differentiate the business from its competitors.
- Mail order is becoming an increasingly popular means of purchasing among black consumers in townships. Marketers can make use of catalogues when trying to capture an audience in a township. Graphic or photographic images should be used heavily in print and visual media, accompanied by short copy statement. Using graphics and pictures in advertising in South Africa is very important due to the high illiteracy levels in the country.

Concluding Remarks

This research has exposed new ways in which small businesses operating in changing environments can advertise and which advertising media are effective. This research will present owners and managers of small businesses operating in changing business environments such as the Tshwane area, with an in-depth understanding of advertising and advertising media. This information can be implemented to increase the success of their small businesses and promote sustainable development. The research also displays results about advertising media and how it can help small businesses differentiate themselves from the competition. This is important in a changing commercial environment such as the Tshwane area where there is increasing competition.

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Principles of Social Responsibility in Terms of Sustainable Tourism in Tourism Establishments

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Abstract

Tourism, which is one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world, also has harmful environmental and socio-cultural impacts its rapid development brought about in addition to its significant benefits for many countries, regions and nations. As a result it has been suggested that while continuing to use the existing tourism resources, it is necessary to ensure the use of these resources by future generations by means of sustainable tourism that emerges with the necessity to investigate an environmentally sensitive tourism approach. In this context, there are duties of tourism establishments. Although there are many sub-factors of sustainable tourism which are related to each other, corporate social responsibility, one of these sub-factors, comes to the forefront when considered in terms of tourism establishments. In this study, corporate social responsibility is considered as an essential component in terms of ensuring sustainable tourism and is discussed and the impacts of the principles of social responsibility on sustainable tourism are evaluated.

Key words: sustainable tourism, social responsibility, tourism establishments

Grounded Theory and Grounded Theory Essays in Turkish Sociology

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In this study of the historical development and fundamental principles of Grounded Theory, we will first evaluate ontological and epistemological discussions located in grounded theory (within the context of positivist and constructive paradigms). Secondly, while locating grounded theory as a methodology in Turkish Sociology, examples using grounded theory will be presented.

Grounded Theory was developed by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss. Their study on patients who were about to die, called "Awareness of dying" (1965), formed certain fundamentals of grounded theory. In America in the 1960's there was a tendency towards not telling terminally ill patients that they were about to die. Hospital officers did not generally share this information with anyone so there was no previous study performed in this field before. So, it was not possible to move onward to a present theory and test this theory in the light of newly discovered information. In these sense, Glaser and Strauss did not perform their study using patients who were aware that their death was imminent. Both with the patients who were about to die and hospital staff who knew they soon would, they performed their research without knowing which patients could be expect to die soon (Charmaz, 2006, 4). The data taken from the study was analyzed in accordance with an inductive method and as a result of the analysis; it was shown that hospital officers gave more care to the mortally ill patients. Based on this finding, Glaser and Strauss formed a resulting suggestion saying that "hospital officers give more care to the mortal patients rather than the patients who do not have any mortal illness." "Awareness of dying" (Strauss & Glaser, 1965, sf.; 3).

From their study, they produced "The Discovery of Grounded Theory" (1967) in which they formed fundamentals of grounded theory, which is now an important and a popular variety of qualitative studies.

While Glaser and Strauss stated that former sociological studies focused on how a theory should be confirmed, we can say that this condition destroys individual's will of exploring and decreases the value of the field. Glaser and Strauss believed that in that testing a theory which may become an important tool in sociology – and it did, in fact, become one of the most fundamental tools and topics of sociology – that that sociologists should test available theories and re-explore the known truth as few produce any useful new theory at all (Strauss & Glaser, 1967, sf; 2).

Because of being the opposite of testing present theories, the thought of producing new theory provoked a deep awakening in other fields and as a research method, grounded theory became more and more popular.

According to Charmaz (2000), grounded theory is a challenge to hegemony of quantitative studies. Quantitative study design formed fundamental methodological structures of positivist understanding which was the source of much sociology research and the dominant paradigm of sociological method at the time. However, it is not fully possible to put grounded theory into opposition of positivist thought. Ontological and epistemological differentiations shed light on this topic.

One should not consider grounded theory as a theory although it carries label of "theory." It is a methodology for directing a researcher to building a theory. It is a whole and systematic process which is directed to exploration of the theory that is an agent to understand regulation of the social world. The fundamental principle of grounded theory is to get data by way of inductive methods and to analyze it simultaneously. So, according to this approach, contrary to classical sociological studies, it is not put forward to confirm theories, it is structured to explore them.

Glaser and Strauss wrote a new methodology for qualitative researches within social sciences and forms the fundamentals of grounded theory methodology. It was entitled *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for qualitative research* (1967). It is presently known to have been cited in over 73,000 scientific works.

Then in 1978, the book called *Theoretical Sensitivity: Advances in the methodology of Grounded Theory*, written by Glaser alone, paved the way for them to work separately and caused it to be called the Classical Glaserian version of the theory. In 1987, Strauss published his book *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists* which considered qualitative study design in general and principles of grounded theory in particular. Just three years later, Strauss with Corbin, published a work which has been considered as more structural and systematic, *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques* with Corbin whom he would produce further works in the future.

In opposition to this particular work of Strauss and Corbin, Glaser produced a work called *Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis* in 1992, presented his *Handbook of Qualitative Research* in 2000, and his book *Constructing Grounded Theory* was another important contribution to grounded theory literature in 2006.

Around the researched phenomenon, grounded theory moves towards the target in a circular way to develop of theory. There are some fundamental milestones of this process. These are: the process of getting and analyzing the information which will be conducted simultaneously, coding and categorizing the data, constant inductive comparative analysis, typing the notes of the researcher, continued sampling towards various objectives known as “theoretical sampling,” theoretical sensitivity which reflects personal ability of the researcher, theoretical saturation and integration, which is directly related to sample choosing and forming categories. In our study, we will discuss this process with its fundamental topics separately.

Grounded theory’s place in Turkish sociology will be located as a result of examination of completed thesis and academic essays.

Psychological Flexibility and Self-Compassion: Contributions of Gender and its Association with Adolescent Depression

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Abstract

Background: In adolescence, depression is a very impairing and recurrent condition. So it is crucial to identify variables that may contribute to its effective prevention and/or treatment. Self-Compassion and Psychological Flexibility have been pointed to as factors with an important role in the treatment of depression and in predicting recovery. However few studies have addressed these factors in depressed adolescents, and even fewer have studied the patterns of its association according to gender. *Aim(s):* The main aim of this research is to examine the relationships between depression, self-compassion and psychological flexibility, taking also into account the contribution of gender, in a sample composed of depressed and non-depressed adolescents. *Methods and Results:* The samples are comprised by adolescents aged between 14 and 18 years, 388 from the general population (non-clinical sample) and 25 which were clinically depressed (clinical sample), and were collected in Portuguese schools, hospitals, and private clinics. Depressed and non-depressed adolescents significantly differ in regard to self-compassion and psychological flexibility. In the clinical sample, as expected, we found lower scores in the positive dimensions of self-compassion and of psychological flexibility, presenting higher scores of experiential avoidance. The results also show that gender significantly contributes to the relationship between depressive symptoms and some of these variables, suggesting a moderating effect of gender. *Conclusions:* Some possible explanations for these associations are presented, as well as clinical implications for prevention and treatment programs.

Keywords: Self-compassion, Psychological Flexibility, Depression, Gender Differences, Moderation

1. Introduction

Depression is a substantial health issue among adolescents. Several studies have found rates of clinical depression among adolescents between 3% and 8% (Apter, Kronenberg, & Brent, 2005; Merry, McDowell, Hedrick, Bir, & Muller, 2004). Furthermore, depression rarely occurs without comorbid mental health problems, which can be as high as 40% to 95% (Parker, & Roy, 2001).

Adolescence is a critical period for the onset of depressive episodes, since the first major lifetime depressive episode tends to occur between the ages of 15 and 18 (Kessler, Avenevoli, & Merikangas, 2001). Also, it is in this age range that the observed gender differences become evident, both in prevalence and incidence of major depression. Until around the age of 13 to 15 years, similar rates are observed for boys and girls, until girls begin to show a disproportionate increase in depression (Hyde, Mezulis, & Abramson, 2008). However, we know little about why this shift occurs, nor how girls and boys might respond differentially to prevention and treatment (Merry, McDowell, Hedrick, Bir, & Muller, 2004). Addressing this issue is of major significance, in order to contribute to addressing the important question of what works best for whom.

Some variables or processes have been largely associated with mental health. Emotional stability has traditionally been considered a key component of psychological health and well-being (Costa, & McCrae, 1980; DeNeve, & Cooper, 1998). Although well adjusted people may appear to be highly stable, recent research suggests that it is actually their ability to continually modify and adjust their emotional responses to environmental changes that underlies their resilience (e.g., Waugh, Thompson, & Gotlib, 2011). Adaptability in emotional responding can be related to both psychological flexibility and self-compassion. Psychological flexibility can be seen as a general capacity for dynamically responding to fluctuating situational demands, which has been identified as a major determinant of mental health (Kashdan, & Rottenberg, 2010). Likewise, self-compassion provides kindness and understanding in the face of life's disappointments, providing emotional stability when the individual is confronted with failure or personal inadequacies (Neff, & Germer, 2013).

Psychological Flexibility

Psychological flexibility, however, has been neglected as a cornerstone of health, because of its complexity, being a construct difficult to define (Kashdan, & Rosenberg, 2010). It refers to a number of dynamic processes that unfold over time. "This could be reflected by how a person: (1) adapts to fluctuating situational demands, (2) reconfigures mental resources, (3) shifts perspective, and (4) balances competing desires, needs, and life domains" (Kashdan, & Rosenberg, 2010, p. 866). In the face of its theoretical background of functional contextualism (Biglan, & Hayes, 1996), definitions of psychological flexibility have to incorporate repeated transactions between people and their environmental contexts (Kashdan, & Rottenberg, 2010). Generally speaking, psychological flexibility is the ability to contact the present moment more fully as a conscious human being, and to change or persist in behavior when this serves valued ends (Hayes, Luoma, Bond, Masuda, & Lillis, 2006). In correlational meta-analyses conducted by Hayes and colleagues (2006), the principle of psychological flexibility, as measured by the AAQ (Acceptance and Action Questionnaire), appears associated with improvement of quality of life in adults. Psychological flexibility has also been correlated with lower levels of mental illness (Bond, & Bunce, 2003; Donaldson-Feilder, & Bond, 2004).

On the other side, inflexibility is a major theme in depression (Rottenberg, 2005). Given that depression often involves inflexible responses, Rottenberg (2005) has argued that depression can be seen as a syndrome where a severe mood disturbance interrupts ongoing motivated activity. Rottenberg, Gross and Gotlib (2005) called this phenomenon emotion context insensitivity. Mostly, psychological inflexibility refers to "the rigid dominance of psychological reaction over chosen values and contingencies in guiding actions" (Bond, Hayes, Baer, Carpenter, Guenole, Orcutt, Waltz, & Zettle, 2011, p. 678), regardless of its context. Specifically, this general maladaptive regulation process is marked by behavioral efforts to control and prevent unwanted psychological experiences, combined with excessive investment in the literal content of thoughts. Although these efforts can be beneficial in some situations or contexts, they can often be prejudicial in others, leading to greater distress and functional impairment (Hayes, Villatte, Levin, & Hildebrandt, 2011).

This knowledge suggests that, in depression, interventions designed to boost skills related to psychological flexibility are important. It is expected that as the skills related to psychological flexibility

flourish, people become more versatile and more able to commit attention and energy to meaningful interests and values (Hayes, Strosahl, & Wilson, 1999), therefore, getting protected for future relapses.

Self-Compassion

Research on self-compassion is new in psychology, having a little more than ten years of work (Yarnell, Stafford, Neff, Reilly, Knox, & Mullarkey, 2015). According to Neff (2003), self-compassion is composed of three components: Self-Kindness versus Self-Judgment, a sense of Common Humanity versus Isolation, and Mindfulness versus Over-Identification when confronting negative self-relevant thoughts and emotions. In interaction, these combined components create a self-compassionate frame of mind. Self-Kindness refers to the ability to be caring and understanding with oneself, instead of being critical or judgmental, offering soothing and comfort to the self in times of suffering. Common Humanity involves recognizing that all humans are imperfect, fail, and make mistakes. It connects one's own flawed condition as part of a larger human condition, so that greater perspective is taken when difficulties arise. Mindfulness is a balanced awareness of one's present moment experience or painful feelings rather than over-identifying with the negative aspects of one's life. Compassion can be extended toward the self when suffering occurs through no fault of one's own—when the external circumstances of life are simply difficult to bear. Self-compassion is equally relevant, however, when suffering stems from one's own mistakes, failures, or inadequacies. One of the most consistent findings in the research literature is that self-compassion is inversely related to psychopathology (Barnard, & Curry, 2011). In fact, a recent meta-analysis (MacBeth, & Gumley, 2012) found a large effect size when examining the link between self-compassion and depression, anxiety, and stress across 20 studies. In addition, empirical evidence suggests that self-compassion is associated negatively with depressive symptoms, being also a strong predictor of depression recovery (Neff, 2003; Neff, 2005; Neff, Kirkpatrick, & Rude, 2007). Self-compassion appears to facilitate resilience by moderating people's reactions to negative events (Leary, Tate, Adams, Allen, & Hancock, 2007). Self-compassionate people are less likely to ruminate about or else suppress their negative thoughts and emotions (Neff, 2003).

The importance of the study of gender differences

Despite the lack of consistent studies, with no studies conducted in adolescents, there is reason to hypothesize gender differences in self-compassion (Yarnell, Stafford, Neff, Reillyb, Knoxb & Mullarkey, 2015). For instance, in the context of the study of compassion, the norm of self-sacrifice (prioritizing the needs of others over their own) is more familiar to women, which may impact their ability to give themselves compassion (Raffaelli, & Ontai, 2004). Women tend to be more critical of themselves than males (DeVore, & Pritchard 2013). Thus, there is reason to believe that women are more likely to lack self-compassion than men. However, there are also reasons to believe that the reverse is true. Since self-compassion involves actively soothing and comforting oneself when suffering is experienced (Neff, 2009), women seem to be more prepared for that than men (Raffaelli, & Ontai, 2004). In fact, research indicates that adherence to masculine gender norms, related with socialization patterns emphasizing emotional restrictiveness and stoicism (Levant, 2011), is associated with lower levels of self-compassion (Reilly, Rochlen, & Awad, 2014).

In regard to studies of gender differences on psychological flexibility, no systematic studies on the contribution of gender in its relationship to depression, or overall mental health, specifically in adolescents, are found in literature. Nonetheless, having in count the studies available on the relationship between inflexibility and depression, it would be important to explore if there are differences between boys and girls on psychological flexibility and if gender moderates its relationship with depression.

Therefore, despite the overall lack of studies of this nature with adolescents, it is expected that there are gender differences in self-compassion and psychological flexibility, as well as different patterns of its association with clinical depression. If so, this would have research and clinical implications regarding how and to whom self-compassion and psychological flexibility should be taught, using specifically developed therapies for promoting these skills (e.g., Therapy of Acceptance and Commitment; Compassionate Mind Training).

Present Study

The purpose of the present study was to investigate gender differences in self-compassion and psychological flexibility in Portuguese adolescents, and explore its contribution to depression. Having in count the lack of studies among adolescents concerning gender differences in the relationships

between depression, psychological flexibility and self-compassion, no specific hypotheses were made. An exploratory study was, then, carried out, in order to simultaneously examine differences on these variables between non-clinical and clinical samples (non-depressed vs depressed adolescents) and to analyze gender differences in these variables and in the associations between them, within the framework of moderation analyses.

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

The total sample consists of 413 adolescents, aged between 14 and 18 years old ($M=5.97$, $SD=1.32$) collected in Portuguese schools, hospitals and private clinics. Of these, 249 are females (60.3%) and 149 males (39.7%). This so called total sample is comprised by 388 adolescents from the general population (normal sample) and by 25 adolescents, which are clinically depressed (clinical sample). Adolescents from the clinical sample were selected using the diagnostic interview Kiddie-Sads-Present and Lifetime Version (K-SADS-PL; Kaufman, Birmaher, Brent, Rao, & Ryan, 1996; Portuguese version by Matos, Marques, & Salvador, 2015).

2.2. Procedure

After guaranteeing authorizations of national data protection authorities that regulate the application of surveys in schools and of ethical health commissions of hospitals from the central region of Portugal, authorizations from schools' directors and from directors of mental health services were obtained. Adolescents and parents (in the case of underage teens) were required to sign informed consents prior to their participation in the study.

Regarding the sample collected in schools, self-report instruments were applied in classroom context, in the presence of researchers. To the students who reported high levels of depression (cut-off point 19 on Children's Depression Inventory), the K-SADS-PL interview was administered individually, in an appropriate and private space. Subjects recruited from the hospitals and private clinics were directed by their child psychiatrist to the study and were then interviewed by the researchers in the same conditions as students selected in schools, after which filled the self-report protocol. Researchers were psychotherapists with more than five years of clinical experience, which had specific training in the administration of the interview.

2.3. Measures

Children's Depression Inventory (CDI; Kovacs, 1985; Portuguese version by Marujo, 1994). The CDI is a self-report instrument composed of 27 items rated on a three-point *Likert* scale that evaluates depressive symptomatology in children and adolescents, aged between 6 and 18 (Kovacs, 1992). It consists of 27 items that feature three response possibilities and the individual must indicate the one that best describes how he felt in the past two weeks. Total score ranges between 0 and 54 points and a higher score indicates a higher severity of depression. In the original version of the scale, Kovacs (1985) demonstrated good psychometric qualities of the instrument, in terms of internal consistency, with Cronbach's alphas (α) between .83 and .94, and in terms of test-retest reliability. In the Portuguese version, Marujo (1994) and later Dias and Gonçalves (1999), found high Cronbach's α values (between .80 and .84). However, these authors could not find the 5 factors described by Kovacs (1985), obtaining an one-dimensional structure. In the present investigation an alpha of .87 was found for the total score of the CDI, revealing good internal consistency.

Self-Compassion Scale (SELF-CS; Neff, 2003; Portuguese version by Castilho, & Pinto-Gouveia, 2011). The Self-Compassion Scale is a self-report measure composed by 26 items that measure six components: Self-Kindness (ability to be kind and understandable to oneself), Mindfulness (balanced awareness and acceptance of one's own feelings and painful feelings), Common Humanity (understanding one's own experiences as part of a larger human experience), Self-Judgment (to be critical and punitive of oneself), Over-Identification (Over-Identification with negative feelings and

thoughts) and Isolation (understanding one's own experiences as different and part of an inadequate self). Each item is rated on a five-point *Likert* scale according to how frequently the individual acts towards himself in difficult times (1= "Almost never" to 5="Almost always"). The total self-compassion score can be obtained by reversing the score of the negative subscale items (i.e. Self-Judgment, Isolation, and Over-Identification) and then compute a total mean. Subscale scores are obtained by calculating the mean of subscale's items responses. The original scale revealed to possess a very good reliability, with a Cronbach's α value of .92 (Neff, 2003). For the scales, the following Cronbach's α values were obtained in the original study of the scale: Self-Kindness .78, Mindfulness .75, Common Humanity .80, Self-Judgment .77, Over-Identification .81 and Isolation .79. In the Portuguese version of this scale (Castilho, & Gouveia, 2011), a good internal consistency was also found: .89 for the total scale; Self-Kindness .84, Mindfulness .73, Common Humanity .77, Self-Judgment .82, Over-Identification .78 and Isolation .75. In the present study we found similar Cronbach's α values. For the total self-compassion score, the Cronbach's α value was .89. The subscales also revealed good internal consistency: Self-Kindness .80, Mindfulness .69, Common Humanity .86, Self-Judgment .82, Over-Identification .82, and Isolation .82.

Acceptance and Action Questionnaire-II (AAQ-II, Bond, Hayes, Baer, Carpenter, Orcutt, Waltz, & Zettle, 2011; Portuguese version by Pinto-Gouveia, Gregório, Dinis, & Xavier, 2012). The scale consists of 7-items and reflects the single domain of psychological inflexibility with higher scores indicating greater psychological inflexibility, or experiential avoidance. Subjects rate how true each statement is for them on a 7-point *Likert* scale ranging from 1 (never true) to 7 (always true). By inverting the items, one can obtain a measure of psychological flexibility, which was the domain used in this study. Therefore, in the present study, higher scores represent higher levels of psychological flexibility. In their study, Bond and colleagues (2011) found a Chronbach's alpha mean of .84, across six samples (ranging between .78 and .88). In the Portuguese version of this instrument authors obtained a Chronbach's alpha of .90. In the present study, a high value of internal consistency was also found, $\alpha = .93$.

2.4. Analytical Strategy

Data analysis was conducted using the *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (SPSS, version 22.0 for Windows). A chi-square was computed to investigate if differences between clinical and non-clinical groups resulted from gender differences on distribution of subjects for both samples. To test differences between groups in the set of variables under study, namely non-clinical vs clinical samples and male vs female, Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA) were performed. In order to explore specific gender differences on the subscales of self-compassion (the only multidimensional variable), Student t-tests were used. The moderator effect of gender in the relationship between self-compassion, and its subscales, psychological flexibility and depressive symptoms in adolescents, was analyzed using hierarchical multiple regressions. Moderation occurs when the nature of the relationship between the predictor variable and the criterion variable differs in its strength or sign, in the presence of a third variable, the moderator. Statistically, a moderating effect would be seen if any regression coefficient of the interaction term was statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

3. Results

3.1. Differences between non-clinical and clinical samples

Clinical and non-clinical groups were equivalent regarding gender distribution [$\chi^2_{(2)}=.362$; $p=.547$], so differences between clinical and non-clinical groups did not result from gender differences on distribution of subjects for both samples.

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to explore differences between clinical and non-clinical samples in our set of dependent variables: depressive symptomatology, overall *self-compassion* (total score on SELF-CS), and *psychological flexibility*. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity, with no serious violations noted.

Results showed a statistically significant difference between clinical and non-clinical samples on the combined dependent variables: $F_{(3, 409)} = 38.66, p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda=.78; partial eta squared=.221.

When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, the three variables reached a statistical significance, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .017: *self-compassion*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 63.29, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.133; *psychological flexibility*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 44.18, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.097; *depressive symptomatology*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 113.24, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.216.

An inspection of the mean scores indicated that in clinical sample we found lower levels of *self-compassion* ($M=13.74, SD = 0.60$) than in non-clinical sample ($M=18.67, SD=.153$), as well as lower levels of *psychological flexibility* ($M=21.68, SD=1.88$ vs $M=34.55, SD=.476$). In the variable measured by the CDI, *depressive symptomatology*, subjects from clinical sample reported higher scores ($M=25.32, SD=1.21$) than subjects from non-clinical sample ($M=12.04, SD=.307$).

3.2. Gender Differences in depressive symptomatology, self-compassion and psychological flexibility

To explore gender differences in the same set of dependent variables (depressive symptomatology, overall *self-compassion*, and *psychological flexibility*) another MANOVA was performed. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity, with no serious violations noted.

Results showed a statistically significant difference between males and females on the combined dependent variables: $F_{(3, 409)} = 16.65, p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda=.89; partial eta squared=.109.

When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, the three variables reached statistical significance, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .017: *self-compassion*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 19.88, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.046; *psychological flexibility*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 36.26, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.081; *depressive symptomatology*, $F_{(1, 411)} = 43.76, p < .001$, partial eta squared=.096.

An inspection of the mean scores indicated that boys reported slightly higher levels of *self-compassion* ($M=19.23, SD=2.82$) than girls ($M=17.81, SD=3.35$), as well as higher levels of *psychological flexibility* ($M=37.23, SD=9.36$ vs $M=31.49, SD=9.53$). In the variable *depressive symptomatology*, measured by the CDI, females reported higher scores ($M=14.56, SD=7.02$) than males ($M=10.24, SD=5.60$).

3.2.1. Gender Differences in Self-Compassion subscales: Self-Kindness, Mindfulness, Common Humanity, Self-Judgment, Over-Identification and Isolation

Being these differences noted, were conducted further analyses in order to test specific differences in *self-compassion* subscales. Means and standard deviations for the total sample and t-test differences between males and females are presented on Table 1. Regarding the subscales, no significant differences for *Self-Kindness* and *Mindfulness* were found. Girls presented slightly higher results on the subscale *Common Humanity*, and presented significantly higher means on *Isolation*, *Self-Judgment* and *Over-Identification* than boys.

Table 1. Gender Group differences in Self-Compassion sub-scales

| Variables | Total (N = 413) | | Girls (n = 249) | | Boys (n = 164) | | t |
|----------------------|--------------------|------|--------------------|------|-------------------|------|----------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | |
| <i>Self-Kindness</i> | 2.62 | 0.79 | 2.64 | 0.78 | 2.59 | 0.80 | .629 |
| <i>Mindfulness</i> | 2.78 | 0.76 | 2.76 | 0.71 | 2.80 | 0.83 | -.462 |
| <i>C. Humanity</i> | 2.70 | 0.83 | 2.80 | 0.82 | 2.56 | 0.84 | 2.842* |
| <i>Self-Judgment</i> | 2.56 | 0.92 | 2.76 | 0.91 | 2.27 | 0.87 | 5.480*** |
| <i>Over-Identif.</i> | 2.54 | 0.93 | 2.80 | 0.86 | 2.16 | 0.89 | 7.548*** |
| <i>Isolation</i> | 2.62 | 0.95 | 2.83 | 0.91 | 2.32 | 0.93 | 5.519*** |

* $p \leq 0.05$, *** $p \leq 0.001$.

3.3. Analysis of Moderation

Taking into account the observed differences by gender, hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted to clarify the role of the gender, verifying the possibility of the existence of a moderating effect of gender in the relationship between *self-compassion* (SELF-CS), its subscales, as well as *psychological flexibility* (AAQ-II) and *depressive symptomatology* (CDI).

Before carrying out the analysis of moderation, the values of the predictor variables were standardized to reduce potential multicollinearity problems and so that interpretation of intercepts of the model was more simplified (Marôco, 2010). We also proceeded to the creation of a *dummy variable* for gender and interaction terms were created between each of the variables in study (*self-compassion* and its factors, *psychological flexibility*) and *gender* (*dummy variable*). To test the effect of the interaction term between the predictors (*self-compassion* and its subscales, and *psychological flexibility*) and moderator (*gender*) in the criterion (total CDI), eight separately moderation analyses were performed, using multiple regressions. Sequentially, the predictor was introduced in a first step; in a second step the moderator (*gender*) and in a third step the multiplicative term between the predictor and the moderator (interaction term). Afterwards, a graph in SPSS to better show the association between the variables was generated.

3.3.1. Study of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship between Self-Compassion (total score of SELF-CS) and Depressive Symptomatology in Adolescents

Hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted to study the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between overall *self-compassion* and adolescents' depressive symptomatology. Although overall *self-compassion* ($\beta=-6.84$; $p<.001$) and *gender* ($\beta=-1.71$; $p<.001$) were predictive of *depressive symptomatology*, no significant interaction effect was found ($\beta=-.65$; $p=.065$).

The same analyses were conducted for the six subscales of SELF-CS (*Common Humanity*, *Mindfulness*, *Self-Kindness*, *Self-Judgement*, *Isolation*, *Over-Identification*). Although the first two steps of the models for the subscales *Self-judgment* ($\beta=.589$, $p<.001$; *gender*: $\beta=-.168$; $p<.001$), *Isolation* ($\beta=.607$, $p<.001$; *gender*: $\beta=-.162$; $p<.001$) and *Over-Identification* ($\beta=.565$; $p<.001$; *gender*: $\beta=-.129$; $p<.005$) were predictive of *depressive symptomatology*, in the third step of the model no significant interaction effect between these variables and gender was found. On the contrary, the three positive subscales yield a positive interaction effect with gender, and their results are described below.

3.3.2 Study of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship between Common Humanity (SELF-CS subscale) and Depressive Symptomatology in Adolescents

Gender was examined as a moderator of the relationship between *Common Humanity* and *depressive symptomatology*, through a multiple hierarchical linear regression.

In a first step, *Common Humanity* was entered resulting in a statistically significant model, [$R^2=.019$, $F_{(1,411)}=8.161$, $p<.001$]. In the second step, the variable *gender* originated a statistically significant model [$R^2=.130$, $F_{(2,410)}=30.695$, $p<.001$]. Both *Common Humanity* and *gender*, isolatedly, were predictors of depressive symptomatology (*Common Humanity*: $\beta=-.140$, $p=.004$, *gender*: $\beta=-.336$, $p<.001$) (cf. Table 2). In the third step of the regression, the interaction term was inserted, producing a statistically significant model, with a significant increase in R^2 [$R^2=.154$, $F_{(3,409)}=24.754$, $p<.001$] and, therefore, observing an increase in the variability explained with regard to depressive symptomatology. A significant interaction effect was found ($\beta=.201$, $p=.001$) (cf. Table 3), explaining 15,4% of the variance in depressive symptomatology.

This statistically significant coefficient of the interaction term indicated that the slope that predicts changes in depressive symptomatology according to the level of *Common Humanity* differed significantly depending on gender.

Table 2. Regression coefficients for the three steps of the hierarchical multiple regression with Common Humanity (CM), Gender and the interaction term ($N = 413$)

| Model | Predictors | R | R^2 | F | β | t | p |
|-------|-----------------|------|-------|--------|---------|---------|------|
| 1 | Common Humanity | .140 | .019 | 8.161 | -.140 | - 2.857 | .004 |
| 2 | Common Humanity | .361 | .130 | 30.695 | -.186 | - 4.003 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.336 | - 7.226 | .000 |
| 3 | Common Humanity | .392 | .154 | 24.754 | -.314 | - 5.269 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.328 | - 7.119 | .000 |
| | CM*Gender | | | | .201 | - 3.365 | .001 |

In order to interpret the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between *Common Humanity* and depressive symptomatology, a graphic of the results was computed (cf. Figure 1). Taking into account the main effects, it was possible to observe that higher levels of *Common Humanity* relate to less depressive symptoms. Regarding the interaction effect, we can say that when *Common Humanity* is low, boys presented lower levels of depressive symptoms compared to girls. Moderation suggests that for the same level of *Common Humanity*, girls tended to have more depressive symptoms than boys.

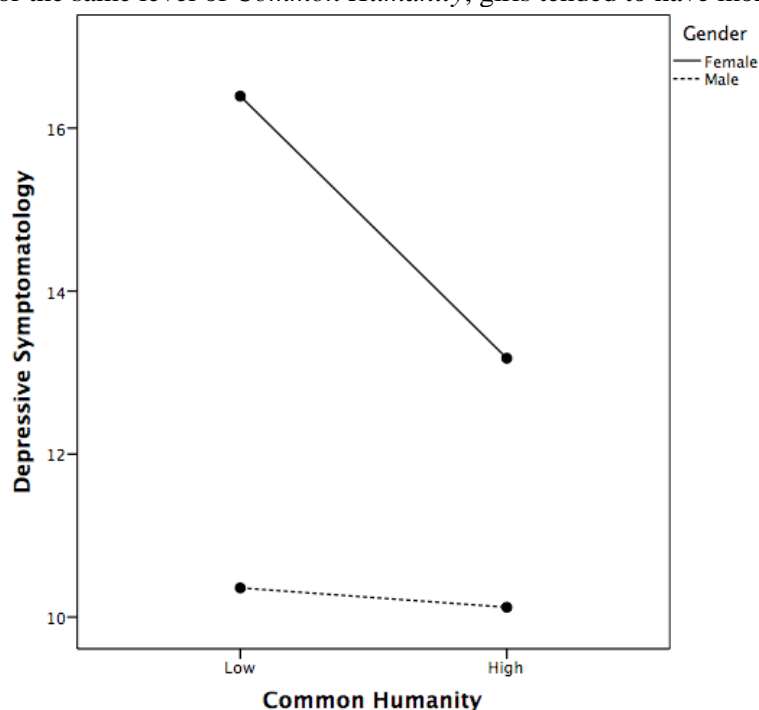


Figure 1. Graphical representation of the gender moderator effect on the relationship between Common Humanity and depressive symptomatology

3.3.3 Study of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship between Self-Kindness (SELF-CS subscale) and Depressive Symptomatology in Adolescents

In a first step, *Self-Kindness* was entered as a predictor and, later, *gender* was entered. The variable *Self-Kindness* resulted in a statistically significant model, in the first step [$R^2=.099$, $F_{(1,411)}=45.014$, $p<.001$]. The variable *gender* originated, in step 2, a statistically significant model [$R^2=.201$, $F_{(2,410)}=51.631$, $p<.001$]. In the third step of the regression, the interaction term was inserted, producing a statistically significant model, with a significant increase in R^2 [$R^2=.233$, $F_{(3,409)}=41.478$, $p<.001$] and, therefore, observing an increase in the variability explained with regard to depressive symptomatology in adolescents. Both *Self-Kindness* and *gender*, isolatedly, were predictors of depressive symptomatology (*Self-Kindness*: $\beta=-.314$, $p<.001$, *gender*: $\beta=-.320$, $p<.001$) (cf. Table 3).

The analysis of the interaction term suggested the presence of a moderating effect of gender in the relation between *Self-Kindness* and depressive symptomatology ($\beta = -.327, p < .001$) (cf. Table 3). Thus, it was found that the interaction term was a significant predictor, explaining 23.3% of the variance in depressive symptomatology.

Table 3. Regression coefficients for the three steps of the hierarchical multiple regression with *Self-Kindness*, *Gender* and the interaction term ($N = 413$).

| Model | Predictors | R | R ² | F | β | t | p |
|-------|----------------------|------|----------------|--------|---------|--------|------|
| 1 | Self-Kindness | .314 | .099 | 45.014 | -.314 | -6.709 | .000 |
| 2 | Self-Kindness | .449 | .201 | 51.631 | -.324 | -7.340 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.320 | -7.252 | .000 |
| 3 | Self-Kindness | .483 | .233 | 41.478 | -.327 | -7.552 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.318 | -7.341 | .000 |
| | Self-Kindness*Gender | | | | .179 | 4.137 | .000 |

A graphic of the results was computed (Figure 2) to understand the moderator effect of *gender* in the relationship between *Self-Kindness* and adolescents' depressive symptomatology. Regarding the interaction effect, we can say that when *Self-Kindness* is low, boys presented lower levels of depressive symptoms compared to girls. Moderation suggests that for the same level of *Self-Kindness*, girls tend to have more depressive symptoms than boys.

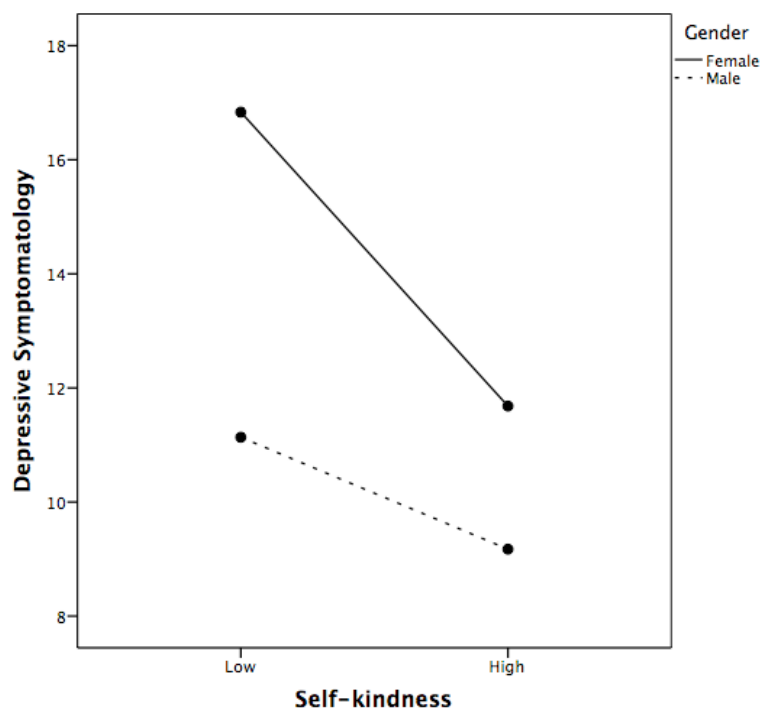


Figure 2. Graphical representation of the gender moderator effect on the relationship between *Self-Kindness* and depressive symptomatology

3.4.1 Study of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship between Mindfulness (SELF-CS subscale) and Depressive Symptomatology in Adolescents

In a first step, *Mindfulness* was entered as a predictor and, later, gender was entered. The first step revealed a statistically significant model, [$R^2=.067$, $F_{(1,411)}=29.405$, $p<.001$]. The variable *gender* originated, in step 2, a statistically significant model [$R^2=.159$, $F_{(2,410)}=38.883$, $p<.001$]. In the third step of the regression, the interaction term was inserted, producing a statistically significant model, with a significant increase in R^2 [$R^2=.437$, $F_{(3,409)}=32.259$, $p<.001$] and, therefore, observing an increase in the variability explained with regard to depressive symptomatology in adolescents. Both *Mindfulness* and *gender*, isolatedly, were predictors of depressive symptomatology (*Mindfulness*: $\beta=-.258$, $p<.001$, *gender*: $\beta=-.304$, $p<.001$) (cf. Table 4). In the third step of the model, the interaction term yield a significant interaction effect ($\beta=.245$, $p<.001$), explaining 19.1% of the variance in the depressive symptomatology.

Table 4. Regression coefficients for the three steps of the hierarchical multiple regression with *Mindfulness*, *Gender* and the interaction term ($N=413$).

| Model | Predictors | R | R ² | F | β | t | p |
|-------|--------------------|------|----------------|--------|---------|--------|------|
| 1 | Mindfulness | .258 | .067 | 29.405 | -.258 | -5.423 | .000 |
| 2 | Mindfulness | .399 | .159 | 38.883 | -.251 | -5.552 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.304 | -6.723 | .000 |
| 3 | Mindfulness | .437 | .191 | 32.259 | -.419 | -6.871 | .000 |
| | Gender | | | | -.306 | -6.870 | .000 |
| | Mindfulness*Gender | | | | .245 | 4.017 | .000 |

In the same way as before, in order to understand the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between *Mindfulness* and adolescents' depressive symptomatology, a graphic of the results was computed (cf. Figure 3).

Regarding the interaction effect, we can say that when *Mindfulness* is low, males present lower levels of depressive symptoms compared to the female gender. Moderation suggests that for the same level of *Mindfulness*, girls tend to have more depressive symptoms than boys.

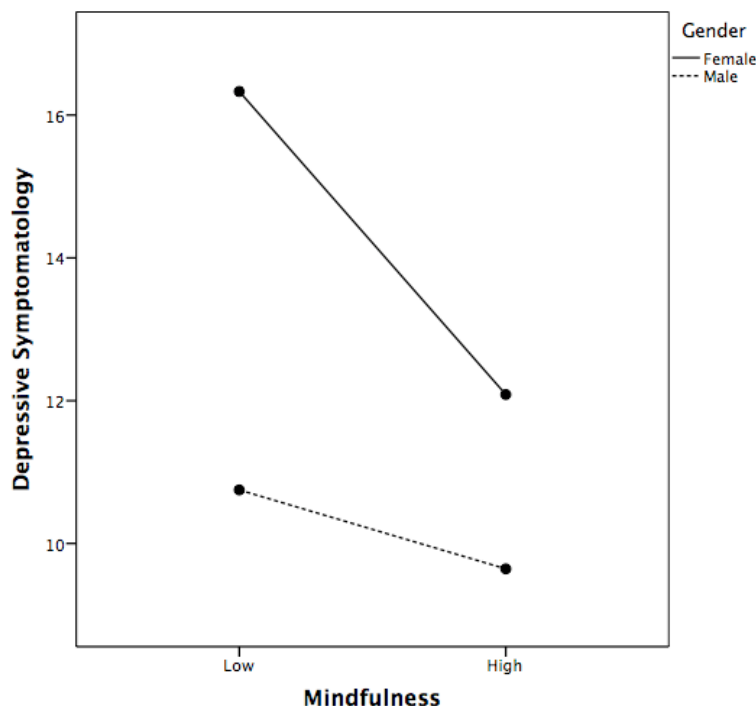


Figure 3. Graphical representation of the gender moderator effect on the relationship between *Mindfulness* and depressive symptomatology

3.3.4 Study of the Moderating Effect of Gender in the Relationship between Psychological Flexibility (measured by AAQ-II) and Depressive Symptomatology in Adolescents

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was conducted to study the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between *psychological flexibility* and adolescents' depressive symptomatology. Although *psychological flexibility* ($\beta = -.665$; $p < .001$) and *gender* ($\beta = -.131$; $p \leq .001$) were predictive of depressive symptomatology, the interaction term ($\beta = .054$; $p = .267$) did not yield a significant effect.

4. Discussion

While research suggests strong associations of self-compassion (Yarnell, Stafford, Neff, Reilly, Knox, & Mullarkey, 2015) and psychological flexibility (Hayes, Luoma, Bond, Masuda, & Lillis, 2006) with mental health and well-being, few studies have clarified the nature of their associations with depression. On the other hand, gender norms may hinder the development of skills of self-compassion (Yarnell, Stafford, Neff, Reilly, Knox, & Mullarkey, 2015) and, therefore, also the enhancement of psychological flexibility. To date, however, research and interventions have not taken into account the potential gender differences in the study of self-compassion and psychological flexibility, particularly in adolescents, and the role of gender in the relationship between these variables and depression.

As expected, we found significant differences in these variables between non-clinical and clinical samples. Depressed adolescents presented less levels of self-compassion and of psychological flexibility than non-depressed adolescents. This is in line with the existing literature, which present significant negative associations between self-compassion and psychological flexibility and psychopathology (Berkling, Neacsiu, Comtois, & Linehan, 2009; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hayes, Luoma, Bond, Masuda, & Lillis, 2006), particularly with depression (Zettle & Rains, 1989).

In this framework, it is important to notice that the inclusion, in this study, of depressed adolescents, was very important in order to increase our knowledge about depression, because comparing clinical with non-clinical samples is the best way to characterize a disorder, ensuring that cases with high levels of depressive symptomatology and fulfilling diagnostic criteria were also included.

Another way to clear our understanding of a disorder is to explore gender differences. Since it is during adolescence that gender differences in the prevalence and incidence in depression tend to emerge (Hyde, Mezulis, & Abramson, 2008), to explore gender differences in variables that contribute to differentiate clinical and non-clinical subjects is of crucial importance, in order to develop interventions able to treat depression effectively and to prevent its recurrence. Regarding self-compassion, past research findings on gender differences have been inconsistent. Several studies have found that females have lower levels of self-compassion than males (Neff, 2003; Neff, Hsieh, Dejithirath, 2005; Neff & McGehee, 2010), while others have not found significant gender differences (Iskender, 2009; Neff, Pisitsungkagarn, & Hsieh, 2008; Neff & Pommier, 2013). Our results are in agreement with the earlier studies, revealing a significant difference in the levels of self-compassion among males and females adolescents, with girls reporting lower levels of overall self-compassion than boys.

The study of gender differences concerning the subscales of the SELF-CS, revealed that highly significant differences were observed in regard to negative subscales (Self-Judgment, Isolation and Over-Identification), showing the girls higher values than boys. As to the positive subscales, no significant differences were found (Self-Kindness and Mindfulness subscales) except for a low statistic significant difference in the subscale Common Humanity, where girls also presented higher results. To our knowledge, no studies of gender differences regarding these subscales were yet made, so this study represents a first step in understanding these gender differences in self-compassion. We hypothesize that the gender differences observed in levels of overall self-compassion (where girls report lower results of self-compassion), could be especially related with the fact that girls are more critical and punitive of themselves, over-identify more with their feelings/thoughts and show a greater tendency to relate their experience to a inadequacy of their self. The fact that boys and girls did not differ on the majority of positive sub-scales of self-compassion is not surprising, since these are self-regulatory strategies that need adequate training to be promoted, and the promotion of these strategies is not characteristic of the Portuguese educational and cultural contexts, where educators tend to be excessively critical and punitive. Given this issue, these results cannot be generalized to other cultural environments, and must be replicated in other cultures.

All the variables in study are predictors of depressive symptomatology. Overall, self-compassion and its negatives subscales (Self-Judgment, Isolation and Over-Identification), as well as psychological flexibility, were predictors of depression, although gender did not moderate the strength of these relationships. However, for the positive subscales of SELF-CS, we found a moderator effect of gender. The data suggest that the interaction with gender was significant for the relationships between the subscales of Self-Kindness, Common Humanity and Mindfulness, and depressive symptomatology. As levels of Mindfulness, Common Humanity and Self-Kindness increased, depressive symptoms decreased for both genders, but in a more pronounced way for girls. This suggests that the enhancement of the skills of Mindfulness, Self-Kindness and the sense of Common Humanity could be especially important for girls and that it may protect them from depression.

Regarding psychological flexibility, our results suggested gender differences in adolescents. Therefore, boys presented significantly higher scores of psychological flexibility than girls. Psychological flexibility was further shown to be a negative predictor of depressive symptomatology, which is in line with the differences observed in our study between depressed and non-depressed adolescents. Regarding moderation analyses, gender did not show a moderator effect in the relationship between this psychological process and depressive symptomatology. Therefore, psychological flexibility was a predictor of depressive symptomatology, but in this relationship it was not found a buffering or exacerbating effect of gender. We believe that, in adolescence, the absence of this moderating effect of gender is not surprising. Taking into account the complexity, richness and importance of the psychological flexibility construct for mental health, we think that psychological flexibility is equally important for boys and girls in protecting them from depression. Additionally, at this developmental phase, psychological functioning patterns are not supposed to be very rigid. However, we expect to find a moderating effect of gender in adulthood, a time when psychological functioning patterns are already more rigid and women experience higher rates of depression, which may affect their adaptation to context demands. Future studies should continue to clarify the role of psychological (in)flexibility in depression, namely as a predictor or a consequence of depressive symptomatology (Kashdan, & Rottenberg, 2010), and mainly in adolescence because these studies are lacking in literature.

Implications for Research

The present research represents an important step in understanding gender differences in depression among adolescents. It studies variables that can explain the greater tendency of women to present depressive symptomatology and develop depression. Additionally, this study analyzes gender differences in SELF-CS dimensions for the first time. To our knowledge, this is also the first available research that explores the relationships between psychological flexibility, gender and depressive symptomatology in adolescents.

The results obtained are in line with research that suggests that interventions for depression should not only target psychological symptoms but should also underlying processes, such as psychological flexibility and emotional regulation strategies associated with self-compassion.

Gender differences found in this study showed the importance of the training of self-regulatory skills associated with self-compassion and of the enhancement of skills enrolling psychological flexibility, once they seem to have a protective impact on depression. On the other side, the training of skills of self-compassion seem to be more important among girls, regarding the moderating effect of gender observed for the positive dimensions of SELF-CS.

These results, however, must be replicated using a larger clinical sample, and more researches are needed, including longitudinal designs treatment studies, and enrolling other important variables, such as sociodemographic ones, like age, and educational and cultural factors that can influence gender differences in self-compassion and psychological flexibility, like parental practices and cultural beliefs associated.

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Acknowledgments

We would like to express our gratitude to all the participants that made this study possible and to FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology) that funded the study. This work is funded by an individual doctoral scholarship (FRH/BD/84252/2012, “Depression in Adolescence: a new intervention program”), by ERDF – European Regional Development Fund through the COMPETE Program (operational program for competitiveness) and by National Funds through the FCT within project “Prevention of depression in Portuguese adolescents: efficacy study of an intervention with adolescents and parents” (PTDC/MHC-PCL/4824/2012).

New Insights into Entrepreneurial Leadership Concept Inspired By Passion

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Introduction

Venture capitalists have long understood that the quality of leadership process in new ventures is of paramount importance (Timmons, 1999). If entrepreneurial leadership is important, its nature should be understood in depth pertaining to more complex than a simple main-effects only relationship with effectiveness. Our approach deals with leadership as an independent variable at the organizational level. An enterprise cannot be regarded as a unitary actor. Entrepreneurship emerges as a result of social process, ripe for power and politics, embedded in an organizational ideology historical context. The political interplay of individual and collective interests has to be examined in order to understand entrepreneurial leadership better. Moreover, passion is the driving force behind entrepreneurial success and a powerful force in accomplishing goals. Understanding this process entails a focus on social actions and meanings: how do various actors in an enterprise interact to recognize, interpret and enact opportunities? Clearly, the answer to this question is complex and involves a very large number of variables. As will be in the literature review that follows, the entrepreneurial leadership model is based on contradictions that have been theoretically or empirically validated by other researchers.

New insights into entrepreneurial leadership construct

In this paper we talk about organizational entrepreneurship as a research domain and try to make additional contributions to theoretical background of traditional field of corporate entrepreneurship. We are specially concerned with the how and why of entrepreneurship in organizations and explicitly focus on contradictions as the main sources of organizational entrepreneurship dynamics.

We argue that it is critical to take dialectical approach into consideration in order to understand why and how entrepreneurship functions in existing organizations. The work follows the trail of prior work that stressed the importance of an organic perspective on strategy (Farjoun, 2002). Following and broadening organic approach, we suggest key progression based on dialectical assumption as vital to development of entrepreneurship research.

Recently an increasing number of researchers have adopted a dialectical perspective on organization, strategy and management (Benson, 1977; Brown & Eisenhardt, 1998; Cameron, 1986; Carter, 1999; Clegg, Cunha, & Cunha, 2002; de Witt & Meyer, 1998; Fabian, 2000; Farjoun, 2002a; Handy, 1994; Hampden-Turner, 1990; Hampden – Turner & Trompenaars, 2000; Kotler & Heskett, 1992; Lewis, 2000; McKenzie, 1996; Mintzberg, Ahlstand, & Lampel, 1998; Pascale, 1990; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989; Seo & Creed, 2002; Quinn, 1988; Townley, 2002). They have distinguished the dialectical approach from traditional approach. Briefly, some key dialectical assumptions may be characterized with the following features:

- The starting point is the entity of the organization that is further divided into mutually complimenting and contradicting areas. Contradiction reconciliation processes taking place in reality means coexistence and friction between juxtaposed tendencies in objects and processes, and particularly relations between events, whose coexistence creates their interaction. None of two contradictory forces can be removed. The emphasis on reconciling contradictions is matched by an encouragement of more systemic and holistic approach to management. The orientation toward contradictions and ways of their reconciliation provides a framework for more profound characteristics of organization. Ambivalences and tension between opposite forces stimulate continuous movement. Tension between actors or within and among

organizations stem from the variety of political, functional, social and institutional roots. Managers who see being and reality as continuous movement, a dialectical process can enable the development of their organization.

- The state of organizational equilibrium not only does exclude contradictions, but accepts them as the basis for radical changes of the existing organizational order. In particular, it implies that inherent contradictions, fused with external developments, create potential for change. The dialectical process model specifically highlights path-dependent organization's formation in which past developments constrain and enable present multiple feasible trajectories. Observable organizational patterns are regarded as one among many possibilities and development path is not natural or determinate. Full management of organization's growth is rare, and when it occurs, it is fragile.
- The task of managers is to synthesize contradictory views. They should strive to temporarily accommodate both factors at the same time and actually need to welcome contradiction and tension. Effective management requires avoidance of quick, fixed solutions. Faced with contradictions, we can try to find novel way of combining opposites, but will know that none of this creative reconciliation will ever be the ultimate answer. An organization which strives constantly to find extreme solutions may find that the process hinders its development and effectiveness. A reconciliation is a dynamic process, not a final state. It brings two extremes of contradiction together but excludes neither. A reconciliation is a local in that sense that it cannot be designed but emerges from situated practice.

In its developed form, Weick's (1995) framework involves social sense making, identity construction, retrospection, plausibility, extracted cues, on-going sense making and enactment. An interesting corollary of Weick's model is that entrepreneurs embedded in organizational/ environmental context (a) experience surprises, discontinuities, gaps – create opportunities, (b) enact context – shape opportunities, (c) retrospectively make attentions to signals with meaning from viewpoint of enacted context – recognize, identify opportunities, (d) interpret and retain meaningful versions of what signals signify to their and organization's identity – interpret opportunity, (e) put into practice or change this credible meaning in subsequent enactment and retrospective perception – mobilize to seize and pursue opportunities. We may see organizational entrepreneurship as useful action strategies of creating, shaping, recognizing, interpreting, seizing and pursuing opportunities.

The process of organizational entrepreneurship consists of multiple, interdependent actions, because opportunities have to be searched for, chosen, and exploited. This notion has led us to describe it as a cycle of activities that organizational members engage in to create, shape, recognize, interpret, seize, and pursue opportunities that allow them to innovate, adapt, improve, and to create new value. These different actions complement each other and, together, constitute entrepreneurial processes. We suggest that these processes may be iterative rather than sequential but they each are necessary for entrepreneurship to occur.

On the basis of the sense-making perspective, we argue that exploiting a endeavor opportunity by seizing and pursuing is a process of resources acquisition, competence development and organizing co-evolutionary with organization and environment. It starts up with seeking opportunities by creating, shaping, recognizing and interpreting. By entering the unexploited arena, the enterprising actors hope to gain some basis for effectiveness. This building and sense making process is analogous to growth in terms of the accumulation of entrepreneurship activities over time.

However, Bamiatzi et al. (2015: 627) claim that as the business environment becomes more turbulent, complex, and dynamic, effective entrepreneurial leadership is increasingly viewed as a source of competitive advantage (Küpers and Weibler 2008), particularly critical in small business development (Thorpe et al. 2009).

On the one hand, recent study of the 100 largest organizational crises has shown that in majority of cases, the failure of successful organizations largely follows the same logic: they grew and changed too quickly (or too slowly), had too powerful (or too weak) leadership, nurtured an excessive (or lack of success) culture (Probst & Raisch, 2005). In the extreme cases organizations simply burnout (implode) or have premature aging syndrome (explode). Therefore, the extremes could be negative for the

enterprise in the long run (Finkelstein, 2003; Sull, 2003). Despite growing evidence showing that extreme, quick, fix solutions are ineffective, entrepreneurs still appear to make this a frequent practice. On the other hand, according to Gielnik et al. (2015:1012), research has shown that it usually takes several years to launch a new firm, during which the entrepreneur has to invest countless hours (Reynolds & Curtin, 2008). Entrepreneurs need to expend considerable effort to successfully start a new venture (Foo, Uy, & Baron, 2009). Scholars have proposed that, beyond other characteristics such as need for achievement (Rauch & Frese, 2007), entrepreneurial passion is an important personal characteristic fueling entrepreneurial efforts (Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001; Cardon et al., 2009).

Patel's et al. (2015:219) research contributes to a growing body of inquiry exploring passion in the leadership context. The research to date has conceptualized how passion differs from other work-related constructs, individual-level outcomes and general conceptualizations regarding its potential positive effects. Their study shifts the focus from passion as a one-dimensional construct to assessing the role of two types of passion and the contingent efficacy of each type of passion in the face of dynamic and complex environmental conditions. Thus, the study explains how under increasing environmental dynamism or environmental complexity project leaders with a specific type of passion may be more successful than others. Gielnik's et al. (2015) findings suggest that there is substantial variance in entrepreneurial passion over time and changes in entrepreneurial passion are a consequence of entrepreneurs' efforts. Entrepreneurs increase their passion when they make significant progress in their venture and when they invest effort out of their own free choice (Gielnik's et al., 2015: 1027). Among the many leadership qualities, passion is essential to mitigating significant challenges and developing novel solutions (Baum and Locke, 2004; Baum, Locke and Smith, 2001; Cardon et al., 2009). However, passion could have both positive and negative effects on a business but in the case of passion and its contribution to entrepreneurial culture we expect it to have a positive effect due to the organization's greater ability to be innovative and exploit opportunities. Some have argued there is a direct link between passion and performance with the two linked together (Hanft 2004).

In related literature, Chen, Yao and Kotha (2009) and Mitteness, Sudek and Cardon (2012) found that displays of passion increased the likelihood of receiving resources from investors. Passion has been shown to improve organization's performance (Baum, Locke and Smith, 2001; Cardon et al., 2009), and in the face of uncertainty passion provides goal coherence, energy and task commitment (Cardon et al., 2009). Despite widespread anecdotal evidence in the entrepreneurship and management literature, the effects of the characteristic of passion in a leadership context remain less explored. In recent years, conceptual (Cardon et al., 2009) and empirical interest (De Clercq, Honig and Martin, 2012; Murnieks, Mosakowski and Cardon, 2012) in understanding the effects of passion on organization's performance has continued.

Smilor claims that passion is perhaps the most observed phenomenon of the entrepreneurial process (Smilor 1997: 342). Passion has been identified as an important conceptual variable in the entrepreneurship process. Academics and practitioners argue that entrepreneurs who exhibit passion are more successful than those who are not (Baum & Locke, 2004). Entrepreneurs are defined as those who discover and exploit new products, new processes, and new ways of organizing (Baum and Locke, 2004: 588), and entrepreneurial efforts are generally defined in terms of the recognition and exploitation of business opportunities, notably through the founding of new ventures (Baron, 2008; Venkataraman, 1997). In the business world, passion is widespread and definitions of passion generally emphasize positive emotions. Baum and Locke call passion (for work) love for work (2004: 588), Shane, Locke, and Collins define it as a selfish love of work (2003: 268), Smilor defines passion as the enthusiasm, joy, and even zeal that come from the energetic and unflagging pursuit of a worthy, challenging, and uplifting purpose (1997: 342). Cardon et al., (2005) state that passion is at the heart of entrepreneurship. Moreover, passion can fuel motivation, enhance mental activity, and provide meaning to everyday work (Brännback et al., 2006: 6). It can foster creativity and the recognition of new information patterns critical to the discovery and exploitation of promising opportunities (Baron, 2008). Passion has been associated with entrepreneurs' ability to raise funds from investors (Cardon et al., 2009b; Mitteness et al., 2012; Sudek, 2006), and to hire and motivate key employees (Cardon, 2008). Passion is a strong indicator of how motivated entrepreneurs are in building a venture, how determined they are in pursuing goals while facing difficulties (Vallerand et al., 2003), and it may be a key driver of entrepreneurial action. Therefore, scholars have argued for a deeper understanding of passion as a central element of entrepreneurial efforts (Cardon et al., 2009a; Chen et al., 2009). Chen et al. define entrepreneurial

passion as an entrepreneur's intense affective state accompanied by cognitive and behavioral manifestations of high personal value (2009:199). Entrepreneurial passion refers to consciously accessible intense positive feelings experienced by engagement in entrepreneurial activities associated with roles that are meaningful and salient to the self-identity of the entrepreneur (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009: 517). Breugst et al. (2012: 172) claim that although leaders might display the same affect, its influence on followers can differ depending on the context. Entrepreneurs lead by passion invest higher levels of energy and effort into new ventures (Baum & Locke, 2004), they identify themselves with the success and failure of their ventures, and passion combined with vision mobilize energy of followers (Bird, 1989). However, Cardon (2008) claims that the larger the company, the more difficult it is for entrepreneurs to engage in transformational leadership and spread passion among employees.

According to Thornberry (2006) leadership requires passion, vision, focus, and the ability to inspire others. Entrepreneurial leadership requires all these, plus a mind-set and skill set that helps entrepreneurial leaders identify, develop, and capture new business opportunities. Entrepreneurial leader (and other people), opportunities, actions, resources, competences, organizational architecture and to some extent passion and environment are the controllable components of organizational entrepreneurship that can be assessed, influenced, strengthen or weaken, thereby changing in positive ways to fill the gaps and improve the reconciliation to add new value and wealth creation. This iterative entrepreneurial process gives the unique combination of founders and venture team, opportunity, actions, resources/competences, and context at the particular time and space in the most important success factor of creating or adding value provided for the constituents. The highly dialectical character of organizational entrepreneurship underscores the criticality of leadership reconciling core contradictions and balancing reward and risk, or some likelihood that actual results will differ from expectations.

To start combining leadership and entrepreneurship, it is important to realize that whereas there are many definitions of leadership, two notions underling most of them are process and influence (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002; Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). For example, Yukl (2002:8) points out that leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplished shared objectives. Covin and Slevin define entrepreneurial leadership as a social influence process intended to facilitate the discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities (2005: 95). Used in this sense, the term entrepreneurial leadership implies a specific type or dimension of leadership and not simply context in which the process is exercised (e.g. entrepreneurial organizations). Having a bearing on Hunt's (2004) conception of a Contextual Antecedent Superstructure, we emphasize that entrepreneurial leadership should be conceptualized as (1) leadership of organization, (2) different from management but complementary, (3) embedded within broad organizational and environmental context, (4) focused on relational and networking aspects, (5) which is dynamic process of leading as opposed to leader, (6) constituting an important part of organizational entrepreneurship. Gupta, MacMillan, and Surie (2004) found empirical support for assumption that entrepreneurial leader is distinct from other behavioral forms of leadership. They define entrepreneurial leadership as a core element of entrepreneurial mind-set that creates visionary scenarios that are used to assemble and mobilize a "supporting cast" of participants who have been committed by vision to the discovery and exploitation of strategic value creation (Gupta, MacMillan, and Surie, 2004:242). Their construct of entrepreneurial leadership involves fusing concepts of the neocharismatic/transformational (Bass, 1985), value-based (House & Aditya, 1997), and team-oriented (Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995) leadership with entrepreneurship theory that focuses attention on proactive enactment, that is, the creation of a new reality (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000:235), on eschewing conventional values to arrive at creative solutions (Amabile, 1996), and on participation and involvement by organizational members in an uncertain organizational context.

We suggest that entrepreneurial leadership is a mode of strategic entrepreneurship which focuses on how the dominant coalition of the enterprise influences the strategic process of entrepreneurship. Following Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) distinction between leadership and strategic leadership, we argue that entrepreneurial leadership refers to top management level and not only to a relational activity but also to a strategic and a symbolic activity. Entrepreneurial leadership process, by shaping the internal and external environment inspires confidence and support among people, who are needed to explore and

exploit opportunities in – as Block (1993) notes – collective, proactive, and pro-organizational way. Although authorities disagree about whether an entrepreneurial personality exists, the general picture that emerges of an entrepreneurial leadership style incorporates the task-oriented, with an eye on the future, creative, and charismatic behaviors (DuBrin, 2004).

Power and politics recently has been acknowledged as the social energy connected to organizational learning (Blackler, 2000; Coopey & Burgoyne, 2000; Lawrence, Mauws, Dyck, & Kleysen, 2005). Hence, we argue that on organizational level the entrepreneurial leadership is an important part of strategic leadership process of providing the direction and inspiration necessary to create and sustain an enterprise, and to ensure a competitive fit between the enterprise and its environment. Furthermore, the components of strategic leadership require high-level cognitive activity, revolutionary thinking, anticipating and creating the future, creating and sharing a vision, gathering multiple inputs (DuBrin, 2004) are important components of an explorative learning and modifying behavior to reflect new knowledge, and, in consequence, constitute any integral part of perplexing strategic entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial leadership processes. Entrepreneurial leadership, however, must usually take the initiative to create the conditions whereby an enhancement of stakeholders' capacities to recognizing and interpreting opportunities takes place as organizational members develop a common purpose and commitment to having the enterprise keep crafting an entrepreneurial strategy and creating new value and wealth.

Entrepreneurial leadership is conceptualized in terms of influence processes that make a multitude of specific contributions to performance by contributing to creating, sustaining and developing the power structure and entrepreneurial culture of an organization that encapsulate organizational capabilities to formulate vision and mobilizes motivation to materialize effectively. With an emphasis on leadership decisions and actions the entrepreneurial leadership model offers substantial potential to re-evaluate organizational entrepreneurship practice through which organizational change, development and success comes about.

Following Sashkin's (2004) efforts to integrate various transformational, charismatic, and visionary approaches, we suggest four aspects that appear to be central to entrepreneurial leadership. These are (1) vision – constructing a vision of what the organizations might be, communicating a vision as a means of moving others to action in the collective enterprise, and to do more than they expected or intended, (2) cultural context – seeking general agreement between people in organization that certain values and beliefs are important and should guide their actions, concentrating on achieving success with others rather than focusing on avoiding failure, transforming the pattern of norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions commonly held by the members of an organization, (3) change and development - going against the status quo, intellectual stimulation by encouraging others to look at problems from different perspective to question assumptions and seek new solutions, using nontraditional means of action that may even surprise others, creating commitment to organizational change, promoting innovation, supporting learning from bad decision or mistakes, (4) power – broadly using the non-economics sources of authority, emphasizing the moral and meaningful aspects of organizational events and situations, coalition forming and maintaining by persuading others that their interests and fates are intertwined, empowering by actively creating opportunities for others to make a vision of organization's future real and building trust, respect and concern for people.

It is well-known that the good analytical perspective is no substitute for comprehensive view of entrepreneurial leadership with interconnecting, reinforcing, and balancing loops. The tension between order and chaos is inherent in entrepreneurial leadership. Moreover, this process is the whole context organization full of interactive relationships between thinking, planning and acting (Cook, 2001), which are shaped by network of feedbacks both positive and negative. Similarly, Shimizu and Hitt (2004) distinguish three decision-making processes that enable strategists to cope with the uncertainty in a dynamic environment: (1) paying attention (be sensitive) to the most important challenges, (2) objective assessing, especially negative data, and (3) initiating and completing action in a timely fashion. The only unchanging ingredients of entrepreneurial leadership are the particular types of its elements that are characteristic of entrepreneurial thinking (paying attention), valuing/deciding (objective assessing) and acting. Synthesizing their contradictory features leads to the establishing of three distinguishing forms of entrepreneurial leadership which, in fact, are the ideal goals and should be pursued in the process of creating consecutive cycles of the reconciling opportunities and actions spiral. Reconciling

contradictions should not be seen here as an aim in itself but rather as a means of building new organization, winning and maintaining the competitive advantage, and wealth creation.

Entrepreneurial leadership process can be supported through the development of internal dynamics that focus on contradictions reconciliation. In doing so, enterprises enhance their own governance adaptive capacity and are better able to enhance their effectiveness. A closer look reveals three fundamental elements that contain contradictions shaping the entrepreneurial leadership dynamics: (1) Top-down, individualistic versus bottom-up, team-work in identifying and interpreting opportunities, (2) Economic effectiveness versus social responsibility in entrepreneurial wealth creation, (3) Extrinsic motivation, economic competition versus intrinsic motivation, social cooperation as a lever of involvement in entrepreneurial activities.

As Lewis (2015) points out the entrepreneurial leadership literature reflects a focus that is, in essence, a fusion of three concepts: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial orientation, and entrepreneurial management (Gupta, MacMillan, and Surie 2004). The form and character of entrepreneurial leadership is accepted as being malleable in the sense of both enactment and exploration. For example, it can be a leader behaving entrepreneurially; an entrepreneur exhibiting leadership behaviors; and leadership in the context of a new venture, an entrepreneurial venture, or a venture that is small or medium in size (Ensley, Pearce, and Hmieleski 2006). Both leadership and entrepreneurship can be conceived of as embodying a distinctive and identifiable set of underpinning traits, behaviors, and competencies (Engelen et al. 2012).

Zyl and Mathur-Helm (2007:17) summarize that entrepreneurial leadership (Gupta, MacMillan & Surie, 2004; Ireland, Hitt & Sirmon, 2003; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002), market orientation (Agarwal, Erramilli & Dev, 2003; Becherer, Halstead & Haynes, 2001; Esteban, Millán, Molina & Martín-Consuegra, 2002; Farrell, 2000; Guo, 2002; Homburg, Krohmer & Workman, 2004; Lafferty & Hult, 2001; Langerak, 2003; Matear, Osborne, Garrett & Gray, 2002) and relationship marketing orientation (Sin, Tse, Yau, Lee & Chow, 2002; Sin, Tse, Yau, Chow & Lee, 2005; Tse, Sin, Yau, Lee & Chow, 2004; Zontanos & Anderson, 2004) have been identified as positive influence on the business performance of an enterprise (Gupta, MacMillan & Surie, 2004; Ireland, Hitt & Sirmon, 2003; Swiercz & Lydon, 2002).

If we confine entrepreneurial leadership as a concept to the organization, then we have focused it to the process of building, among multiple constituencies, commitment to the enterprise's vision, mission, objectives, and strategies as well as change or reinforcing existing patterns of behavior in the enterprise as the whole changing its structure processes, capabilities and developing an effective organizational culture, including infusion ethical value systems in making strategic decisions (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000). Our entrepreneurial leadership framework is developed within larger House and Shamir's (1993) context of transactional/transformational, charismatic, or visionary leadership. The approach, already suggested in leadership topics (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995; Thayer, 1988), joins that researchers who argue that the dialectical approach may be extendible to many domains of organizational enquiry. One especially interesting illustration is the competing values framework, where it is argued that effective leaders must be able to engage in both similar and contradictory roles (Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, & McGrath, 2003). Giddens's notion of the dialectic of control holds that, no matter how asymmetrical, power relations are always two-way, contingent and to some degree interdependent (Giddens, 1987). This opinion is similar to that of Collins (2001), who concluded that great performance of leaders is based on combining a culture of discipline with an ethic of entrepreneurship. In a somewhat related vein, Collinson (2005) explores three interrelated dialectical dynamics (control/resistance, dissent/consent, men/women) and highlights the tensions, contradictions and ambiguities that typically characterize the relations and practices of leaders and followers as mutually constituting and coproduced. At the same time, Farson (1996) illustrates how apparent contradictions or absurdities could be the sources of leadership competences. These suggestions are not at all inconsistent with predictions derived from other studies that have pursued the important aspects of leadership in existing enterprises.

The entrepreneurial leader's challenging task is to mobilize the competencies of the enterprise and its stakeholders by scenario enactment (creating a scenario of possible opportunities) and cast enactment (creating a cast of people endowed with the appropriate resources). Gupta, MacMillan and Surie (2004) argue that these two independent dimensions of enactment provide the theoretical framework for the construct of entrepreneurial leadership. Particularly first dimension, we suppose the cognitive one reflecting explorative learning, is depicted by three specific entrepreneurial roles: (1)

Framing the challenge – setting highly challenging but realistic standards and goals for the cast of knowledgeable actors to accomplish, (2) Absorbing uncertainty – taking the burden of responsibility for the vision and instilling others with confidence that they can accomplish desirable future, (3) Path clearing – diplomatic bargaining to obtain support from the stakeholders, persuading others of leader viewpoint, and encouraging them through reassuring and advising. The second dimension of entrepreneurial leadership, we suggest the ideological one because of leader's appealing to a vision derived from a set of super ordinate values (institutional ideology), is characterized by next two roles: (1) Building commitment – inspiring emotions, beliefs, values and behaviors of others to work hard together and to seek continuous performance improvement, (2) Specifying of constraining limits – intellectually stimulating others and integrating people around shared understanding of what can and cannot be done, making decisions firmly and quickly to persevere in the face of environmental change, and encouraging others to learn. In summary, the key lever of an entrepreneurial leadership is a collective spirit of conscious opportunity-seeking.

In our construct of entrepreneurial leadership, we consider organizational participants and stakeholders that foster or facilitate the development of entrepreneurial processes (Bratnicki & Kozlowski, 2008). The internal environment makes demands for order and predictability. The external environment makes demands for attention, flexibility, responsiveness, and effectiveness. These potentially contradictory elements of organizations create a challenge for entrepreneurial leadership, who capture mental models of organizational members with clear vision of the future and motivate followers to realize the vision. In entrepreneurial areas that is in an environment of complexity, ambiguity, uncertainty, in which knowledge is the most critical success factor multiple perspective are needed to solve the problems, and stakeholders' shared vision and widely shared interpretations are required (Hirschorn, 1997; Raelin, 2003) and self-organization are required (Meindl, 1998; Wheatley, 1999). The question relevant to such entrepreneurial dynamic is the degree to which dialectic reconciliation may affect an enterprise effectiveness. Measuring how an enterprise deals with entrepreneurship contradictions, involved in the creation of new opportunities and in building new organizational entities, may provide clear and robust predictors of future survival, objective effectiveness, and subjective perceptions of success. However, as noted earlier, fewer studies have looked into the entrepreneurial leadership contradictions implications.

Above, we describe the major ideas and contributions related to entrepreneurial leadership. The process of entrepreneurial leading requires engagement with many dimensions, and in this paper we have drawn out three that we believe are crucially important: visionary, transformational and motivational. We realized that the picture is quite incomplete. Therefore, we suggest that it is worth including passion into the entrepreneurial leadership framework. Of course, not always creating vision and common direction, transforming organizational culture, and mobilizing motivation of stakeholders of organizational mind is clear path for entrepreneurial success: other organizational processes (strategic, administrative, behavioral) and external circumstances will also play important roles. But the presence of the above mentioned ingredients certainly combines to create an effective entrepreneurial leadership and increases the probability of enterprise's high effectiveness.

This entrepreneurial perspective posits that an organization can leverage the effectiveness impact of existing management through opportunities exploration and exploitation, but little theoretical and empirical research address these issues. Developing the dialectical perspective on entrepreneurial leadership further, we theorize that contradictions' reconciliation shapes opportunity creating and shaping. More specifically, we focus on explicating the strategic role that entrepreneurial, dialectical dynamics can play in enhancing organizational effectiveness. It seems that reconciliation of entrepreneurial leadership contradictions may positively impact creating and shaping opportunities.

Given the scope and magnitude of benefits conferred by dialectical approach it seems reasonable to suggest that it might provide similar benefits for entrepreneurial leadership research. For this reason, and taking into account the interdependence of contradictions reconciliation through associated processes, we posit that entrepreneurial leadership involves three interlinked contradictions. Although this finding may be unsurprising to many, we are unaware of any existing study that has presented evidence of the link between contradictions reconciliation and entrepreneurial wealth creation.

Discussion, implications for research and implications for practice

We present a theoretical analysis of the leadership role in the organizational entrepreneurship process. Specifically, we argue that effective entrepreneurial action is impeded by a simplistic understanding of leadership – one dominated by a non-dialectical perspective. By using dialectical theory as a new lens through which to view leadership in entrepreneurial studies, we describe how reconciliation of contradiction can affect corporate entrepreneurship, as well as organizational effectiveness. Our entrepreneurial leadership model integrates theoretical perspectives such that research on the charismatic transformation and organizational leadership is enlivened with entrepreneurial reconciliation of dialectical contradictions. Using the concept of dialectical dynamics, we distinguish three common leadership contradictions associated with entrepreneurial phenomena in existing organizations: (1) top-down versus bottom-up entrepreneurial initiatives in creating vision and common direction, (2) economic effectiveness versus social responsibility in shaping organizational culture for entrepreneurial wealth creation, and (3) economic competition versus social cooperation in mobilizing motivation for entrepreneurial partnership. The contradictions framework, as indicated above provides a sound foundation for the advancement of new ways to uncover and effectively manage challenges pertaining to leadership in entrepreneurial organizations.

Implications for Research

Our aim in this paper has been to establish what we believe are the most critical elements of entrepreneurial leadership process. To do so, we have explored the dialectical dynamics of contradictions' reconciliation. The described model contributes to research on leadership and on entrepreneurship in organizations by identifying entrepreneurial leadership through which organization members experience and deal with complex demands of entrepreneurship. Having defined entrepreneurial leadership as the strategic process of influencing by which organizational participants and stakeholders recognize, interpret and enact opportunities using common purpose, shared values, and commitment to keep strategic value creation in proactive, innovative, risk-taking way, we adopted a dialectical perspective that highlights the role of contradictions. We believe that any theory of leadership without an understanding of its dialectical dynamic will always be incomplete.

Further, since our interest is in identifying dialectical dynamics in entrepreneurial leadership, we need some framework against which organizational contradictions are discovered and assessed. This requires that we carefully specify the contradictions that enterprise reconcile and ensure that these are comparable across organizations. More subtly, we have to ensure that we not only look at dialectical output, but also account for difference in the quality of entrepreneurial available to different organizations. In addition, one has to ensure that entrepreneurial leadership contradictions are compared across similar external conditions.

Our analysis explicitly acknowledges that the formation of different types of entrepreneurial leadership relationships operates within the constraints and possibilities presented by dialectical dynamics. The dynamics includes visionary, transformational, and motivational dimensions. Furthermore, our theoretical analysis acknowledges that the nature of the entrepreneurial leadership process produces reconciliation of three main contradictions. More specifically, we have discussed theoretical possibilities for a synthesis of three entrepreneurial leadership contradictions, as well as some explanations of behaviors of organizational actors attempting to develop effective entrepreneurial relationships.

However, we see a methodological obstacle to achieve such reconciliation in practice. Since the research questions and instruments employed have not reflected a dialectical view of leadership, it is possible, that academic community present understanding reflects current theory more than organizational reality. Few measures exist for constructs such as vision creation, cultural transformation or motivation mobilization; therefore, developing measures of integrated constructs will be particularly challenging. Obtaining a more accurate account of entrepreneurship contradictions requires new instruments to capture a more integrated view of leadership and its relationships with variables like "accuracy", "amount" or "effectiveness" of entrepreneurship.

Additionally, the entrepreneurial leadership construct/model suggests that effectiveness can be influenced by interactions between contradictions and processes that are remote from effectiveness in

time and in the casual chain. From a research implications perspective, the proposed model adds to the theoretical development of corporate entrepreneurship. We need to widen our gaze from the narrow focus on simple direct effects and to the more significant world of interactions as part of the social fabric where entrepreneurship would create value. Research should seek to demonstrate how the entrepreneurial leadership model can be translated to actionable knowledge (Argyris, 2004) to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

More specifically, the strategic quest for opportunities and mainstream thinking about entrepreneurship need some key questions to be answered. What are organizational entrepreneurship building activities and processes and how can enterprises best balance the desire for entrepreneurship against other imperatives? Are certain managerial orientations more successful in leveraging and protecting entrepreneurship? The important entrepreneurship policy question is whether existing organizational infrastructures are effective in meeting the needs and expectations of entrepreneurial people. We will explore the effect of entrepreneurial leadership on wealth creation through new endeavor creation, proactivity, innovation, risk taking and aggressive opportunity seeking. While considerable progress has been made, we believe that substantial components and manifestations of entrepreneurial leadership and its contingent influence on corporate entrepreneurship and its outcomes are yet unexplored, providing new areas for scholar inquiry. In this vein it may be possible that the need for special organizational infrastructure (resource and competences) deserves further, more critical evaluation.

It should be noted that the entrepreneurial leadership model is simple enough so that the key issues can be monitored at glance and is holistic enough to highlight the interactions of contradictions and outcomes of entrepreneurial leadership. For space and parsimony reasons, we have illustrated only dominant processes that are involved in leadership competence as the ability of enterprises members to create, shape, recognize, interpret, seize and pursue opportunities of relevance to the organizational effectiveness. The results extend prior research on entrepreneurship by showing an overarching framework of driving a coherent research agenda centered on interlinked concepts, revealing perspectives on leadership issues to underpin further direction of future knowledge creation and accumulation. Additionally, due to their complementary nature, these elements provide a synergy. In a related vein, it will prove useful to develop a categorization of types of entrepreneurial leadership configurations and to relate to appropriate time frames, knowledge and attention requirements.

We discuss the entrepreneurial leadership in the light of the dialectical framework. The process should be mapped out in detail so as to enable managers to focus on the desired scope, depth an intensity of entrepreneurship in a given enterprise. Thus, to achieve a quantum leap in the effectiveness of entrepreneurial leadership we need to look into this process – what the process does, and how it does to ensure that it provides new value and create new wealth.

The entrepreneurial leadership is an organizational process with a dialectical dynamics contours that are consequential for creating and maintaining entrepreneurship, and leadership acts affect both the effort and directions of subsequent entrepreneurial actions. We extend this observation to suggest that in future research scholars look at how leadership might serve as the means by which enterprises may adjust and align their entrepreneurial orientation with the positive impact on performance. We join the growing number of voices urging scholars to include the role of contradictions in their thoughts and actions as vehicles of change and to allow the possibility of entrepreneurial synthesis. This perspective highlights the importance of developing theory that attends to the dynamic nature of entrepreneurial process. A research implication concerns the factors that facilitate the maintenance of tensions between entrepreneurial leadership competing needs of participants in ongoing process. It is unclear how such reconciliation can be managed effectively. Thus, in the future research scholars should pay close attention to specific ways of maintaining tensions that produce effective entrepreneurial leadership.

We claim the critical issue is what the processes are by which entrepreneurial leadership is constituted into successes or failures of new value creation. Therefore, the aim of the present study has been directed specifically toward searching for evidence of universality of entrepreneurial leadership, and for this to be done through a theoretical analysis. We believe it is likely there are three generic entrepreneurial leadership contradictions and universal/near-universal effective entrepreneurial leadership processes. However, various writers perceive problems of generalizability arising from the significant cultural and organizational differences affecting leadership (Javidan & Carl, 2005; Holt, 1998; Hunt & Peterson, 1997; Triandis, 1993). Consequently, our results challenge a number of long

held and taken for granted assumptions about the contingent nature of effective leadership. Nevertheless, our findings appear both valid and robust. Furthermore, there is only sparse empirical evidence relevant to this issue, which, as yet represents theoretical speculation that needs to be demonstrated empirically in a wide and culturally diverse range of contexts – across organizations, industries and cultures.

It can also be counter-argued that our model entrepreneurial leadership could be further extended to include contextual variables. For instance, times of difficult and challenging tasks, turbulence, and need for innovation increase the likelihood that organizations will be more susceptible to the entrepreneurial leadership which appears uniquely qualified to recognize and interpret opportunities. A next research implication concerns the role of stakeholders giving the mutual influences between stakeholders and their collaboration more attention.

We suggest that these leadership actions need to be taken at the organizational level and extend analysis by outlining the enterprise processes that shape entrepreneurial leadership. We hope that scholars and practitioners alike will focus the spotlight on the development of effective contradictions reconciliations end synthesis, as well as on effective leaders and entrepreneurs. In our view, understanding dialectical dynamics is as important as understanding leaders. This dialectical framework extends our understanding of leadership in entrepreneurial organizations and offers a novel approach to thinking about leading in exploring and exploiting opportunities for new wealth creation. Not only do we contribute a description of what entrepreneurial leadership is and it gets accomplished; we also consider how the process of contradictions' reconciliation are intertwined in organizational situations and provide means to explore what makes opportunities meaningful.

Implications for Practice

Forming vision and creating strategic direction, transforming organizational culture, and mobilizing motivation constitute the basic elements of entrepreneurial leadership. But as we already noted, without a theory of the dialectical dynamics that support these processes, a general model of entrepreneurial leadership will always be incomplete and unable to fully explain or predict which opportunities will be identified and interpreted as viable way to new wealth creation.

Participants first need to produce a collective vision through the responsibility establishment of both top-down individualistic and bottom-up entrepreneurial activities. Practically speaking, the opening sequences of leadership process should involve shared ideology that connect potential participants and articulates specific direction for them in identifying and interpreting opportunities. Through forming vision, entrepreneurial ideas are made explicit, named in terms of opportunities, and incorporated into organizational mindset that relates the new ideas to new strategic direction. The process involves the perception of holistic patterns and improvisation based on these perceptions, allowing for the development of creative vision, along with the facility to channel that vision in entrepreneurial strategies.

Once a collective vision and common direction is socially constructed, entrepreneurial leadership participants need to shift their perceiving, thinking, and acting toward the ongoing valuing and deciding related to entrepreneurial wealth creation. Our analysis suggests that this can be facilitated by building organizational culture that focuses simultaneously on repeatedly articulating concerns of economic effectiveness and social responsibility. The resulting business ethics helps to maintain the salience of both financial and social performance, as well as helps to maintain the distinction between them, by including in leadership process joint learning. A key factor in this process is the power and political will of those attempting to make cultural transformation. The institutionalization of new norms, values and beliefs depends on the actions of interested participants and stakeholders who work to embed new ideas in the organizational culture. Thus, entrepreneurial leadership supports and shapes consistent bases for business ethics, and subsequent entrepreneurial wealth creation.

Facilitating involvement in entrepreneurial activities requires an ongoing tension between extrinsic motivation, economic competition and intrinsic motivation, social cooperation. At a minimum, the importance of this contradiction suggests the value of building and mobilizing community of entrepreneurial actors who adopt potent vision. The importance of this contradiction also suggests the need for entrepreneurial partnership that arises in resource acquisition and legitimacy outside as well as inside the enterprise. In addition, more use might be made of structures and processes that help to prevent one individual or a group from dominating. If the organizational participants and stakeholders engage in the processes described here, they should increase their chances of achieving partnership and

entrepreneurship while also meeting their respective interests, expectations, and needs. The focus of mobilizing entrepreneurial motivation is the accomplishment of coherent, collective, organizational action. A final practical implication concerns the boundaries of when the entrepreneurial leadership can and should be applied. Our intent has been to develop a leadership model for ambitious, proactive, innovative, and risk-taking enterprises. Opportunity seeking, entrepreneurial organizations demand large investment commitments in terms of ambiguity that people have to tolerate, as well as sets of supportive resources, processes, capabilities, and competences to be set. Not all enterprises have such entrepreneurial orientation and significant proportion of leadership relations is not intended to explore and exploit opportunities. In such case we do not argue that organizational participants and stakeholders should engage in the leadership process described above.

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Education and Global Civil Society

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Education is a systematic socialization process which takes place in cultural environment, complex education regulations of the society formally and at home informally. It is total of processes in which individual makes progress in skills, attitudes and positive forms of behavior. There are lots of sub institutions like other institutions have. Namely, grading, examinations, diploma, homework, being a student, being a teacher etc. As it can be easily seen it has a formal nature. Every component of education is written. Education exists in every single society at least potentially as an institution. Thus, education has the function of including values within itself. These values bridge and champion the social structure with education. The content of education can be different from society to society however the presence and the need of education does not change. Education is universal with this feature for all societies in order to construct their social structure.

The concept of the commons is a key pattern to understanding global civil society. Common institutions, organizations, tribunals, laws, norms and territories. These goods include not only air and water, but also such public benefit ideals as social justice and civic commitment, and they cannot be achieved by individual decision-making alone. Global Civil Society needs organized people to work. The commons are critical to the well-being and ultimately the survival of the community. Global Civil Society encourages compromise and mutual respect. The heterogeneity of the Society works against enforced unity. They cross- border links and networks help to define and redefine who gets when and how in the world.

In this study the attempt will be made to understand and analyze the mutual relationship between education as a social institution and global civil society as an emerging or an evolving concept.

Keywords: education as a social institution, global civil society, socialization

Social Movements and Crime Responsibility

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to describe the causes and aims in the formation of social movements within the crime responsibility domain by determining the consequences of these movements according to law and implementation. This has increased participation in the new act where the aim of this movement is not to conquer or to convert when targeting the government, especially when the cultural change of this outweighs the target in space and “new” identity orientations are be examined with respect to how to get involved in social transformation with globalization of social movements.

Keywords: social movements, social movement paradigms, crime responsibility

A Silent Pathway to Depression: Social Anxiety and Emotion Regulation as Predictors of Depressive Symptoms

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This work is funded by ERDF – European Regional Development Fund through the COMPETE Program (operational program for competitiveness) and by National Funds through the FCT – Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology) within project “Prevention of depression in Portuguese adolescents: Efficacy study of an intervention with adolescents and parents” (PTDC/MHC-PCL/4824/2012).

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Abstract

Background: Social anxiety is the most common comorbid disorder in patients with major depressive disorder, almost always preceding it and aggravating its presentation and course. A possible mechanism to explain this relationship may well be the use of specific maladaptive emotion regulation strategies, common to depression and social anxiety.

Objectives: This study aimed to explore, in an adolescent sample, if depression could be predicted by social anxiety and if emotion regulation strategies would mediated this relationship.

Method: The sample included 527 adolescents from the general population (59.2% were girls; $M_{age} = 13.8$; $SD = 7.57$). Self-report scales measuring depression, social anxiety and cognitive emotion regulation were filled out.

Results: Depression and social anxiety showed significant, positive and moderate correlations with all cognitive emotion regulation strategies (self-blame, catastrophizing, and rumination), exception made for the correlation with other-blame, which was very low. The final mediation model explained 39% of depressive symptomatology, with social anxiety having both a direct and an indirect effect. The only significant mediation variable that accounted for this indirect effect was self-blame.

Conclusions: The results clearly point to the role of social anxiety in adolescents' depressive symptoms either directly or indirectly, through self-blame. These results call attention to the importance of discriminating social anxious and depressive symptomatology offering specific preventive or therapeutic approaches for both conditions or including different components in these approaches to address both depression and social anxiety. Furthermore, effective intervention should also target specific cognitive emotion strategies. Theoretical and clinical implications are considered.

Keywords: Depression, social anxiety, cognitive emotion regulation, adolescents

Introduction

Depression and social anxiety in adolescence

The transition into adolescence involves a number of biological, cognitive, and social changes, making adolescence a particularly demanding period due to the several challenging developmental tasks it includes. Entering adolescence means dealing with a changing body, often going into a new school, having new peers and having to make new friends. Adolescents have to develop a sense of identity and emotional independence. They start turning to peers instead of parents for emotional support and social acceptance becomes more and more important, bringing about the awareness of being social objects more so than during childhood (Petersen & Spiga, 1982; Rubin, Coplan, & Bowker, 2009; Sroufe & Rutter, 1984). In face of all these changes and challenges, it is not surprising that many adolescents experience increased negative affect, emotional reactivity, social anxiety and risk for internalizing symptoms (Arnet, 1999; Larson and Ham, 1993; Parker & Asher, 1987). Therefore, the successful negotiation of these tasks results in a healthier and more prepared system to face the demands of the next period whereas its inadequate resolution may result in maladaptive strategies that may be expressed in anxiety or depression problems.

In fact, adolescence is a probable period do develop major depressive disorder (MDD) and social anxiety disorder (SAD), two of the most prevalent mental disorders (Kessler, Chiu, Demler, Merikangas, & Walters, 2005). Adolescents' depression is a highly prevalent and serious mental health condition due to its prevalence, comorbidity, tendency to chronicity and impact (Petersen, Compas, Brooks-Gunn, Stemmmler, & Grant, 1993), with a peak of onset around 15 years of age (Fergusson, Horwood, Ridder, & Beautrais, 2005). A recent study (Avenevoli, Swendsen, Jian-Ping, Burstein, & Merikangas, 2015) points to a lifetime prevalence and 12-month prevalence of MDD of 11% and 7,5%, respectively.

On the other hand, social anxiety disorder, characterized by an intense fear of being scrutinized by other people resulting in marked fear and anxiety in social situations often coupled with the avoidance of such situations, has its onset in adolescence and tends to follow a chronic course (APA, 2013), with a high negative impact and functional impairment in the adolescents life (see Salvador, 2009, for a review).

MDD and SAD are frequently comorbid conditions, both in youth (Beidel, et al, 2007; Chavira, Stein, Bailey, & Stein, 2004; Crawley, Beidas, Benjamin, Martin, & Kendall, 2008; Essau, Conrad, & Petermann, 1999; Ranta, Kaltiala, Rantanen, & Marttunen, 2009; Viana, Rabian, & Beidel, 2008; Wittchen, Stein, & Kessler, 1999) and in adults (Kessler, Stang, Wittchen, Stein, & Walters, 1999;

Kessler, Berglund, Demler, Jin, Merikangas, & Walters, 2005), with SAD being considered the most common comorbid anxiety disorder in patients with MDD (Belzer & Schneier, 2004). In addition, the comorbidity between SAD and MDD is associated, in both disorders, with greater impaired functioning, more severe and chronic course, greater risk of relapse, and, in general, worse prognosis than when the disorders present independently (Brown, Schulberg, Madonia, Shear, & Houk, 1996; Dalrymple, & Zimmerman, 2007, 2011; DeWit, Ogborne, Offord, & MacDonald, 1999; Lecrubier, 1998; Lewinsohn, Rohde, & Seeley, 1995; Ruscio, et al, 2008; Stein, et al, 2001). Furthermore, most patients with SAD who seek psychiatric treatment, primarily seek treatment for MDD, leaving SAD undiagnosed and untreated (Brown, Campbell, Lehman, Grisham, & Mancill, 2001; Dalrymple & Zimmerman, 2007; Lecrubier, 1998; Zimmerman & Chelminski, 2003).

Interestingly, several studies found that SAD precedes the onset of MDD (Beesdo, et al, 2007; Beidel, Turner, Morris, 1999; Chavira, et al, 2004; Dalrymple & Zimmerman, 2011; De Graaf, Bijl, Spijker, Beekman, & Vollebergh, 2003; Kessler, et al, 1999; Stein et al, 2001; Wittchen et al, 1999), indicating SAD as an important predictor of subsequent depression. As an example, Kessler and collaborators (1999), in a large adult sample, found that 68,5% of the patients with a mood disorder and SAD stated that SAD occurred at an earlier age. Also, in a study from Beesdo et al (2007), in a 10-year prospective longitudinal study with participants aged 14 to 24 years at baseline and 21 to 34 at follow up, the risk of depression was 2-fold in individuals with SAD compared to those without SAD and almost 3-fold compared to individuals with no anxiety disorder, regardless of age. Moreover, Aune & Stiles (2009) found that youth level of social anxiety symptoms was a significant predictor of initial depressive symptoms, while depression did not predict later social anxiety.

Emotion regulation in depression and social anxiety

Despite the marked changes posed by adolescence, many adolescents manage to cope with them fairly well, never developing any psychiatric disorder. This may be due to the strategies adolescents use to deal with their increased negative emotions, a process that is called emotion regulation (e.g., Tillfords & Van Zalk, 2015), defined as “extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features, to accomplish one’s goals” (Thompson, 1994, pp.27-28). In general, emotion regulation strategies refer to processes that aim to monitor, evaluate and modify emotions, altering their intensity, duration and/or valence (Gross & John, 2003).

In fact, to overcome the constant adolescence psychological challenges, adolescents are required to develop emotion regulation strategies, namely through conscious cognitive processes. Luckily enough, it is also during this period that important cognitive abilities develop, giving way to the development of cognitive coping skills. Adolescents are able think in abstract terms and to monitor their own process of thinking. These abilities enable them to plan ahead or to find different/alternative explanations for a given event, thereby regulating their emotions and not getting overwhelmed by them during a stressful life event (Garnefski, Legerstee, Kraaij, Van den Kommer, & Teerds, 2002). Examples of cognitive coping strategies are self-blame (blaming yourself for what happened), blaming others (putting the blame of what was experienced on the environment or another person), rumination (thinking about the feelings and thoughts associated with the negative event), catastrophizing (thoughts emphasizing the terror of what was experienced), acceptance (thoughts of acceptance of what was experienced) or positive reappraisal (thoughts of creating a positive meaning to the event) (Garnefski, Kraaij, & Spinhoven, 2001; Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006).

Although these cognitive abilities are universal, there are large individual differences in the strategies used, the frequency with which they are used, and in the content of thoughts adolescents use to regulate their emotions (Garnefski et al, 2002), acting as risk or protective factors in the development of psychopathology (McLaughlin, Hatzenbuehler, Mennin, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2011; Silk, Steinberg, & Morris, 2003). Therefore, some of these cognitive emotion regulation strategies may allow adolescents to better cope with negative life events, while some other emotion regulation strategies, if used systematically, are considered maladaptive, forming an important risk factor for psychopathology in adolescents and adults. Garnefski and collaborators (2001) have found that cognitive emotion regulation strategies such as self-blaming, catastrophizing and rumination played an important role in the relationship between the experience of negative life events and maladjustment.

More specifically, depression has been consistently and positively associated to self-blame, rumination, and catastrophizing and negatively associated to positive reappraisal (Garnefski et al., 2001; Garnefski, & Kraaij, 2006; Garnefski, Boon, & Kraaij, 2003; Garnefski, Rieffe, Jellesma, Terwogt, & Kraaij, 2007; Garnefski, Teerds, Kraaij, Legerstee, & Van den Kommer, 2004; Martin & Dahlen, 2005; Ongen, 2010), with rumination acting as the most frequent predictor of depressive symptoms (e.g., Broderick & Korteland, 2004; Burwell & Shirk, 2007; Hankin, 2008; Nolen-Hoeksema, Stice, Wade, & Bohon, 2007) and of the onset of clinical depressive episodes (Abela & Hankin, 2011). Moreover, in a very recent study, self-blame has also found to be associated with the prodrome period before the onset of the first MDD episode in adolescents (Sheriff, McGorry, Cotton, & Yung, 2015).

Despite the fact that emotion regulation was not a common research theme on SAD, interest in understanding emotion regulation in SAD is growing (e.g., Hofmann, 2010; Hofmann, Sawyer, Fang, & Asnaani, 2012; Turk, Heimberg, Luterek, Mennin & Fresco, 2005) and studies in this area are accumulating over recent years, all of them finding significant associations between social anxiety and emotion regulation difficulties (e.g., Eastabrook, Flynn, & Hollenstein, 2014; Farmer & Kashdan, 2012; Helbig-Lang, Rush, Winfried, & Lincoln, 2015; Jazaoeri, Morrison, Goldin, & Gross, 2015; O'Toole, Jensen, Fentz, Zachariae, & Hougaard, 2014). Several studies have suggested that SAD is also characterized by elevated rumination, either in anticipation of the feared situation (Vassilopoulos, 2005) or following the feared situation (e.g., Abbot & Rapee, 2004; Brozovich & Heimberg, 2008; Edwards, Rapee, & Franklin, 2003). Other emotion regulation strategies have also been studied and associated to SAD or to social anxiety symptoms, such as suppression (e.g., Kashdan & Breen, 2008; O'Toole et al, 2014), experiential avoidance (e.g., Kashdan et al, 2013), and reappraisal (e.g., Kashdan et al., 2013; O'Toole et al, 2014). Reappraisal was also found to be associated SAD treatment effects (Goldin et al, 2012; Moscovich et al., 2012). However, unlike in depression studies, where self-blame and catastrophizing are frequent variables to be studied, we found no study in which the relation between social anxiety and catastrophizing was approached and only one, using an adult sample, that studied and found a relationship between social anxiety and self-blame (Gilbert & Miles, 2000). This scarcity leaves room for further studies on these themes.

Some research is also investigating the relation between social anxiety, depression and emotion regulation strategies, exploring possible pathways between the two psychopathological conditions and trying to account for the enormous comorbidity they present. A recent study investigated the use of rumination for SAD and MDD patients (D'Avanzato, Joorman, Siemer, & Gotlib, 2013). Both disorders were found to be characterized by high levels of rumination but depression showed even higher levels of rumination. Another study (Eastabrook et al, 2014) suggested that adolescents' emotional regulation strategies (suppression and reappraisal) played an important role in determining depressive and social anxiety symptoms. On the other hand, social anxiety also played a role in emotion regulation, predicting higher levels of rumination over time (Jose, Wilkins, & Spendelow, 2012). Closer to our goal, two studies explored the mediation role of rumination and brooding between social anxiety and depression. In one of these studies (Drost, Van denr Does, Van Hemert, Pennix, & Spinhoven, 2014), rumination and worry were found to mediate the association of baseline fear disorders, among which was SAD, with distress disorders, among which was MDD. In this study, changes in rumination and worry also mediated the relation between baseline fear disorders and changes in distress disorders. Consistent with this result, Grant and collaborators (2014) also found a mediation role of brooding (a particular form of rumination) between Time 1 social anxiety and Time 3 depression.

Aims

In line with the revised literature and given that the research on the association between social anxiety and depression in adolescent is still at its beginning, this study aimed to explore how social anxiety and emotion regulation may predict depression.

By using cognitive emotion regulation strategies, such as self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and blame-others, adolescents may be more vulnerable to develop internalizing disorders, namely social anxiety and depression. Therefore, we sought to examine the direct effect of social anxiety on depressive symptomatology, as well as its indirect effect through self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and other-blame. It was expected that levels of social anxiety would be associated with levels of depressive symptoms, and that social anxiety and maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies would predict depression.

Thus, the two investigated hypotheses were (see Figure 1): a) Social anxiety is a predictor of depressive symptoms; b) The effect of social anxiety on depressive symptomatology is mediated (totally or partially) by self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and other-blame.

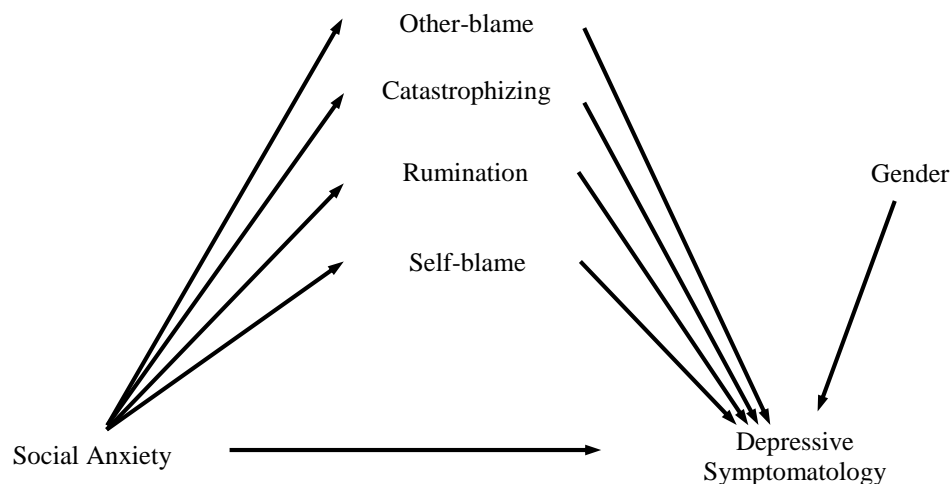


Figure 1. Theoretical model for mediation effects

Method

Participants

Participants for this study were recruited as a part of a Portuguese Project: “Prevention of depression in Portuguese adolescents: Study of the efficacy of an intervention with adolescents and parents”. The sample included 527 adolescents from the general population, in which 215 were boys (40.8%) and 312 were girls (59.2%), between from 13 and 15 years of age ($M = 13.84$; $SD = 7.57$), and attending the 8th and 9th grades in public schools. We did not find significant differences between genders on age ($t_{(525)} = -.638$, $p = .518$).

Procedure

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from national entities that regulate scientific research. Schools were contacted in order to request their participation. After their approval, authorization was also obtained from students and their parents. Anonymity was ensured to the participants as well as confidentiality of the data. After obtaining all permissions required, the research protocol was applied in a classroom setting, before any psychological intervention. The exclusion criteria were: (a) incomplete fill of scales/missing index higher than 10% in each scale; (b) subjects below 13 and above 15 years of age (once the bigger project that included this study aims to prevent the first major depressive episode that usually happens around 15 years old).

Measures

Social Anxiety

The Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children (MASC, March, J. et al. 1997; Portuguese Version: Salvador, M. C. et al. 2015). The MASC is a self-report instrument that assesses anxiety symptoms in children and adolescents aged from 8 to 19 years old. It consists of 39 items, rated on a Likert scale of 4 points (from 0 = “never or almost never true” to 3 = “often true”). The original authors found four factors, three of which presented two sub-factors: a) *physical symptoms* (12 items), with sub-factors *tense/restless* (6 items) and *somatic* (6 items); b) *harm avoidance* (9 items), with sub-factors *perfectionism* (4 items) and *anxious coping* (5 items); c) *social anxiety* (9 items) that includes the sub-factors *humiliation* (5 items), *public performance* (4 items) and d) *separation anxiety* (9 items). March, J. and colleagues (2001) obtained alpha coefficients ranging from .68 to .83. The Portuguese version revealed that the internal consistency scores were acceptable for all factors of the MASC, excepting the sub-factors Perfectionism and Anxious Coping. The scale total, factors, and sub-factors showed

moderate to high temporal stability. In this research, we studied only the factor social anxiety. The alpha value will be presented in Table 1.

Emotion Regulation

Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (CERQ, Garnefski, et al., 2001; Portuguese version: Matos & Serra, 2009). The CERQ is a self-report questionnaire that assesses specific cognitive emotional regulation strategies used by the adolescents when facing negative life events. Participants rated 36-statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). To illustrate, some questions of this questionnaire: “I feel that I am the one to blame for it”, “I think about the mistakes I have made in this matter”. The CERQ has 9 subscales: self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing, other-blame, acceptance, positive reappraisal, refocus on planning, putting into perspective, positive refocusing. Garnefski and collaborators (2001) obtained alpha coefficients ranging from .68 to .83. In the Portuguese version (Matos & Serra, 2009) alpha coefficients ranged from .68 to .83 as well.

Depressive Symptomatology

Children's Depression Inventory (CDI, Kovacs, 1985; Portuguese version: Marujo, 1994). The CDI is a 27-item self-report measure depressive symptoms over the two previous weeks in 7 to 17 year-old children. It has three answering options that range from 0 (no problem) to 2 (severe problem). Kovacs (1985) found five factors with Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging .83 to .94. In the Portuguese version (Marujo, 1994) a unifactorial structure was found, with an alpha coefficient of .80 for the total scale.

Results

Data analysis

Data was explored using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), version 20 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA) and AMOS version 20. Descriptive statistics were conducted to explore sample's characteristics. Gender differences were tested using independent sample t-tests, and two-tailed Pearson correlation coefficients were performed to explore the relationships between predictor variables, outcome variables, and mediators (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Cohen's guidelines (1988) were used for describing the effect sizes of reported correlations (i.e. small for correlations around .10, medium for those near .30, and large for correlations at .50 or higher). Significance was set at the .01 and .05 levels.

According to Kline (2005), path analysis ‘involves the estimation of presumed causal relations among observed variables’ (p. 93) and test theoretical relationships on the basis of covariation and correlations among variables. To test the mediator effect of self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and other-blame in the relationship between social anxiety and depressive symptomatology a path analysis was conducted.

A maximum likelihood method was used to evaluate the significance of the model's path coefficients. Bootstrap resampling procedure (2000 cases) was conducted to analyze the significance of the effects. The results were considered significant at the .001 level if the 95% CI did not include the zero (Kline, 2005).

Multivariate outliers were screened using Mahalanobis squared distance (D^2) method, and univariate and multivariate normalities were assessed by skewness and kurtosis coefficients. There was no severe violation of normal distribution ($|Sk| < 3$ and $|Ku| < 8-10$) (Kline, 2005). Regarding multicollinearity or singularity amongst the variables, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values indicated the absence of β estimation problems ($VIF < 5$). Effects with $p < .01$ were considered statistically significant.

Descriptives

The means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas for all variables used are presented on Table 1. All scales showed reasonable to good internal consistencies (Pestana & Gageiro, 2005).

Table 1.

Means (M), standard deviations (SD) and Cronbach's Alpha for all subjects (N=527)

| Variables | M | SD | α |
|---------------------------|-------|------|----------|
| MASC | | | |
| Social Anxiety | 1.36 | 0.66 | .88 |
| CDI | | | |
| Depressive Symptomatology | 11.18 | 7.08 | .77 |
| CERQ | | | |
| Other-blame | 1.94 | 0.71 | .79 |
| Catastrophizing | 2.29 | 0.88 | .79 |
| Rumination | 20.17 | 0.89 | .79 |
| Self-blame | 2.53 | 0.82 | .77 |

Note: MASC: Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children; CERQ: Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire; CDI: Children's Depression Inventory.

Gender differences were tested and significant differences were found on in the majority of variables (Table 3). Girls scored significantly higher than boys in depressive symptoms ($M_{girls} = 12.54$, $SD = 7.56$; $M_{boys} = 9.19$, $SD = 5.78$), social anxiety ($M_{girls} = 1.48$, $SD = .66$; $M_{boys} = 1.18$, $SD = .60$) and rumination ($M_{girls} = 3.02$, $SD = .87$; $M_{boys} = 2.59$, $SD = .85$). Boys scored higher than girls only in other-blame ($M_{girls} = 1.88$, $SD = .71$; $M_{boys} = 2.03$, $SD = .70$).

On the other hand, no significant differences were found on catastrophizing [$M_{girls} = 2.32$, $SD = .93$; $M_{boys} = 2.25$, $SD = .80$; $t(525) = .972$, $p = .331$].

Table 2.

Student's t-test differences between boys and girls for MASC, CERQ and CDI

| | Boys (n = 215) | | Girls (n = 312) | | t | p |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|------|--------------------|------|--------|------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | | |
| Social Anxiety (MASC) | 1.18 | 0.60 | 1.48 | 0.66 | -5.338 | .000 |
| Depressive Symptomatology (CDI) | 9.19 | 5.78 | 12.54 | 7.56 | -5.486 | .000 |
| Other-blame (CERQ) | 2.03 | 0.70 | 1.88 | 0.71 | 2.358 | .018 |
| Catastrophizing (CERQ) | 2.25 | 0.80 | 2.32 | 0.93 | -0.972 | .331 |
| Rumination (CERQ) | 2.59 | 0.85 | 3.02 | 0.87 | -5.688 | .000 |
| Self-blame (CERQ) | 2.35 | 0.74 | 2.51 | 0.86 | -2.287 | .023 |

Note: MASC: Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children; CERQ: Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire; CDI: Children's Depression Inventory.

Correlational analyses

Pearson correlation coefficients were performed to explore the association between social anxiety, depressive symptomatology, other-blame, catastrophizing, rumination and self-blame (Table 3). Significant, positive and very low to moderate correlations were obtained. Results indicated a moderate correlation between social anxiety and depression. Furthermore these two variables were associated with all emotion regulation variables, although other-blame showed very small correlations both with social anxiety ($r = .09$, $p < .05$) and with depression ($r = .12$, $p < .01$). Moreover, correlations between all emotion regulation variables were moderate to high.

Table 3.
Correlations (two-tailed Pearson r) between variables in study ($N = 527$)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 1. Social Anxiety (MASC) | – | | | | | |
| 2. Depressive Symptomatology (CDI) | .52** | – | | | | |
| 3. Other-blame (CERQ) | .09* | .12** | – | | | |
| 4. Catastrophizing (CERQ) | .33** | .47** | .48** | – | | |
| 5. Rumination (CERQ) | .34** | .38** | .31** | .58** | – | |
| 6. Self-blame (CERQ) | .32** | .50** | .32** | .60** | .64** | – |

Note: MASC: The Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children; CERQ: Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire; CDI: Children's Depression Inventory. ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Mediation Analysis

Taken the previous results and our hypothesis, we tested a path model in which we investigated the mediation role of emotion regulation strategies (other-blame, catastrophizing, rumination, self-blame) in the relation between social anxiety and depression.

All the possible paths (direct and indirect paths between predictive, mediators and criterion variables) were not included in the final model (see Figure 1). The paths social anxiety \rightarrow other-blame [$b = 0.099$; $SE_b = 0.047$; $Z = 2.112$; $p = 0.035$; $\beta = 0.099$]; rumination \rightarrow depressive symptomatology [$b = -0.802$; $SE_b = 0.279$; $Z = 2.881$; $p = 0.014$; $\beta = -0.101$]; catastrophizing \rightarrow depressive symptomatology [$b = 1.304$; $SE_b = 0.117$; $Z = 11.181$; $p = 0.012$; $\beta = -0.173$]; and gender \rightarrow depressive symptomatology [$b = 1.613$; $SE_b = 0.497$; $Z = 10.423$; $p = 0.016$; $\beta = -0.112$] were not statistically significant at .01 level, and by that reason were removed. Since our aim was to test possible mediation effects of cognitive emotion regulation strategies between social anxiety and depression, once one of the path to or from the mediator variable was non-significant (trajectories a and b) we removed the related path (trajectories b and a).

The mediation model (Figure 2) was tested through a fully saturated model (i.e., zero degrees of freedom). Model fit indices are not reported since fully saturated models always produce a perfect fit to the data.

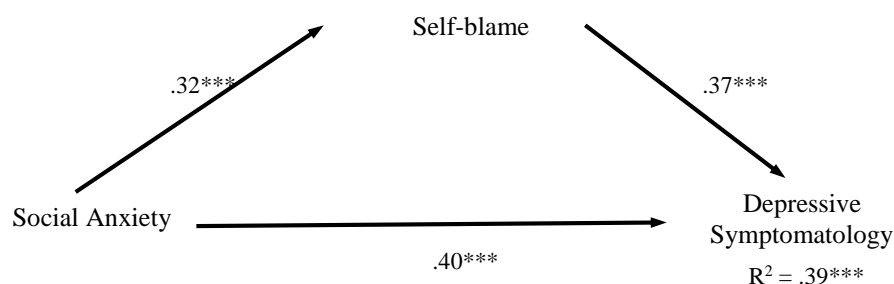


Figure 2. Mediation Model. Standardized path coefficients among variables are presented. *** $p < .001$

The model accounted for 39% of the explained variance of depressive symptoms. A significant indirect effect of social anxiety on depression through self-blame [$\beta = .119$ (95% CI= 0.79; 1.62), $p = .001$] was found. However because the standardized direct effect from social anxiety on depression was also statistically significant [$\beta = .400$ (95% CI= .329; .474), $p = .001$] we can only consider the existence of a partial mediation. The total effect, that represents the sum of the standardized direct effect with the standardized indirect effect was [$\beta = .519$ (95% CI= 4.762; 6.472), $p = .001$]. Thus, the indirect effect mediated by self-blame consisted of 23% (.119 / .519) of the total effect of social anxiety on depression, suggesting that part of the effect of social anxiety on depressive symptoms was explained by self-blame.

Discussion

The transition into adolescence is characterized by important biological, cognitive, and psychosocial changes. It is a period when many typical social fears and worries emerge and vulnerability to emotional difficulties increase (Rapee & Spence, 2004). Recent reviews have shown that prevalence of mental health problems rises among adolescents, namely social anxiety and depression (Avenevoli et al. 2015, Burstein, He, Kattan, Albano, Avenevoli, & Merikangas, 2011).

Major depressive disorder (MDD) and social anxiety disorder (SAD) often co-occur in adolescence, with SAD preceding the onset of MDD (e.g., Beesdo et al., 2007). Many authors speculate about the mechanism(s) by which pre-existing SAD may increase the risk of subsequent depression. One possible explanation is that some features of SAD predispose to the development of MDD, namely through cognitive emotion regulation strategies, once difficulties in emotion regulation are proposed to be associated with a wide range of emotional disorders (e.g., Hofmann et al., 2012).

While depression has been consistently associated to dysfunctional emotion regulation strategies (e.g., Garnefski & Kraaij, 2006), and despite the fact that conceptualization models of SAD include difficulties in emotion regulation (Clark & Wells, 1995), only recently has clinical research focused on emotion regulation in SAD, confirming that this condition is associated with the use of particular emotion regulation strategies (e.g., Eastabrook et al., 2014).

Given the scarcity of research linking social anxiety, depression and emotion regulation strategies, especially in adolescence, the aim of our study was to explore the predictive power of social anxiety over depression and a possible mediation effect of maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies in this relationship. Thus, we hypothesized that social anxiety was a predictor of depressive symptoms, and the effect of social anxiety on depressive symptomatology would be mediated by self-blame, rumination, catastrophizing and other-blame.

In accordance with our hypothesis, results showed that depressive symptoms were significantly, positively and highly correlated with social anxiety. These findings are in line with prior research demonstrating that social anxiety has been positively related with depressive symptoms (Stein, et al. 2001, Wittchen et al., 2003).

As expected, and consistent with other studies, correlation analyses showed that other-blame, catastrophizing, rumination and self-blame were significantly associated with depressive symptoms (Garnefski et al., 2001; Garnefski, et al., 2002; Garnefski, et al., 2003) and social anxiety (D'Avanzato et al., 2013; Eastabrook et al., 2014; Gilbert & Miles, 2000). In general, previous studies suggested that by using cognitive emotion regulation strategies such as self-blaming, rumination and catastrophizing adolescents may be more vulnerable to emotional problems (Garnefski et al., 2001).

However, we found that blaming others showed very small correlations both with social anxiety and with depression. Our results seem to be in line with Garnefski and colleagues (2001). On the other hand, the psychometric study of the Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, as well as its prospective relationships with symptoms of depression and anxiety showed non correlation between blaming others, anxiety and depressive symptoms, in adults (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2007).

In the prediction of depressive symptoms, social anxiety had a strong effect on depression, either directly or indirectly, accounting for 39% of the variance explained.

From the four cognitive emotion regulation strategies that entered as mediators (self-blame, other-blame, catastrophizing, and rumination), only self-blame was shown to be a significant partial mediator in the relationship between social anxiety and depression, accounting for 23% of the total variance explained. This finding consists of an extension to the existing literature in adolescents and may be related to several factors. In fact, individuals with SAD (or with high social anxiety) are known for interpreting aversive social outcomes, such as criticism or rejection, as due to their own inadequacy, blaming themselves, and not the others, for these shortcomings (Clark & Wells, 1995). This characteristic may be responsible for other-blame not being found as a significant mediator and for self-blame being the only significant mediator. Since there are no other studies that have explored these relationships, we cannot compare our results with those of other studies, recommending the replication of this finding in future studies.

Unlike both studies that found that rumination (Drost et al., 2014) and brooding (Grant et al., 2014) mediated the relation between social anxiety and depression, our study did not confirm such a role for rumination. Drost and collaborators (2014) found that rumination mediated the relation between fear disorders, including SAD, and distress disorders, including MDD, in our study rumination was not

found to be a mediator of the relationship between social anxiety and depression. One possible reason for this fact may relate to the different instruments used in both studies. In our study, the Rumination factor from CERQ (Garnefski, et al., 2001) was used. This instrument asks subjects to rate the frequency of certain thoughts when a negative life event occurs. Rumination items refer to thinking about feelings and thoughts associated with the event. An example of an item is “I am preoccupied with what I think and feel about what I have experienced”. On the other hand, Drost and collaborators have used the Leiden Index of Depression Sensitivity (LEIDS-R; Van der Does, 2002), which measures cognitive reactivity to sad mood. An example of an item is “When in a sad mood, I more often think about how my life could have been different”. This instrument, unlike ours, assesses how people react to an already existent sad mood, thereby setting the way to an overlap between social anxiety and depressive symptoms, which can explain the mediation found. Instead, CERQ does not assume that sad mood is present, assessing how people react to a negative event.

A similar situation happened in the Grant and collaborators’ study (2014). In this study, the instrument to measure brooding was the Brooding Subscale from the Ruminative Response Scale (RRS; Nolen-Hoeksema and Morrow 1991; Treynor et al., 2003) that assesses the degree to which an individual focuses on his/hers depressive symptoms and their consequences. An item example is “What am I doing to deserve this?”. Therefore, the same hypothesis put forward in the previous case may also apply.

Another possible explanation for this discrepancy among studies may be related to the samples used. In fact, the sample used in Drost and collaborators’ study was a clinical adult sample, and the sample from Grant and colleagues (2014), although being a community sample, was also an adult sample. Conversely, our sample was a community adolescent sample. It is possible that these rumination processes are not yet as developed in adolescents as they are in adults, particularly in clinical samples.

One final explanatory hypothesis for these different findings may underlie the fact that neither rumination nor catastrophizing were found to be mediators between social anxiety and depression. As assessed by CERQ, catastrophizing refers to thoughts that emphasize the terror of what was experienced. An example is “I continually think how horrible the situation has been”. Thus defined, both catastrophizing and rumination (defined above) could, indeed, take place during post event processing, when individuals with high social anxiety review the social situation in detail (Clark & Wells, 1995), focusing on perceived shortcomings, negative images of oneself or flaws in one’s performance. However, post-event processing seems less likely to include thoughts about thoughts and feelings related to the event (rumination) or thoughts about how horrible the situation was, in general (catastrophizing). Instead it includes a detailed revision of the interaction, dominated by negative perceptions of the self and of social performance (Wells & Clark, 1997), where individuals assume the responsibility for social flaws, in a mainly self-critical process, closer to self-blame, which is also a factor frequently associated with depression (e.g., Garnefski et al., 2002). In line with this, Seabra e Salvador (2015) have found that self-criticism was a significant predictor of post-event processing in a sample of SAD adult patients. If catastrophizing would be prospective, i.e., related to thinking about thoughts and feelings the individual believes will be associated to a forthcoming event, as it happens in the anticipatory processing so characteristic of SAD (Clark & Wells, 1995), we hypothesize that stronger associations would be found. However, we would still not expect this variable to mediate the effect of social anxiety on depression, given that depressive individuals are more prone to ruminate about past events and not so much catastrophizing about future events.

The finding that self-blame mediated the relation between social anxiety and depression may be related to the impact of self-blame in the decrease of mood and interference with problem solving, self-blame probably resulting from post-event processing where the individuals assume the responsibility for what has happened and criticize themselves for that. Moreover, assuming the blame for past negative events also fits the well-known internal, stable and global attributional style for negative events (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978), typical of depression. Therefore self-blaming in response to social mishaps (as it happens in SAD) may make the adolescents more vulnerable to develop depressive symptoms and, eventually, a full blown major depressive episode.

Beyond this indirect effect, social anxiety did not lose its predictive power, also presenting a substantial direct effect over depression. There are a variety of mechanisms through which social anxiety can have an impact on depression. For instance, social withdrawal characteristic of SAD may lead to have fewer friends, peer rejection, feelings of loneliness, sadness, and low self-worth or self-esteem (Beidel et al., 1999; Beidel et al., 2007; Gazelle & Ladd, 2003), also characteristic of depression.

Moreover, SAD patients tend to make negative inferences about the meaning of adverse social events for their future and their self-worth (Stopa & Clark, 2000), which may, in turn, function as a vulnerability to develop MDD (Abramson, Metalsky & Alloy, 1989). Further studies are needed to explore possible mechanisms responsible for this effect.

Regardless of these mechanisms, our results are in line with other studies that considered social anxiety as a risk factor for the development of depression (Beesdo et al., 2007; Dalrymple & Zimmerman, 2011; Kessler et al., 1999).

At the same time, this result also points to the probably high percentage of adolescents with depression that may have a primary SAD diagnosis. SAD patients, particularly adolescents, rarely seek treatment for their condition. In addition, since SAD is a “silent” disorder, they are also rarely referred to therapy primarily for SAD. Instead, other more acute disorder is the reason for seeking treatment or being referred to therapy, namely MDD (Lecrubier, 1998). This is probably one of the reasons why, despite its high prevalence and impact, SAD often goes under-recognized and under-treated (Brown et al., 2001; Dalrymple & Zimmerman, 2007; Lecrubier, 1998; Zimmerman & Chelminski, 2003). This is particularly problematic due to SAD’s chronic course (APA, 2013), and its increased persistence and severity related to its early onset (Kessler, 2003). On the other hand, MDD with SAD as a comorbid disorder is associated with higher levels of severity, chronicity and relapse (e.g., Dalrymple, & Zimmerman, 2007, 2011; DeWit et al., 1999; Lewinsohn et al., 1995; Stein, et al, 2001). This may mean that, if left unrecognized and untreated in prevention and intervention programs for depression, SAD may function as a risk factor for relapse, undermining the benefits of these interventions. In fact, evidence suggests that untreated comorbid SAD may affect the treatment outcome of MDD (DeRubeis et al., 2005; Isometsä, Holma, Holma, Melartin, & Rytala, 2008).

Clinical Implications

In terms of clinical implications, the results of this study point to several important clinical implications. Since social anxiety was found to be a predictive factor of depression, an important target for preventive intervention of depression may therefore be to prevent or intervene in social anxiety symptoms. This may imply to screen adolescents with depressive symptoms for social anxiety symptoms and either redirect them for a specific program or to include a specific component to address such symptoms in programs primarily aimed at preventing or treating depression.

Secondly, the important role played by self-blame in the relationship between social anxiety and depression points to the importance of including a component to target it in prevention and intervention programs, either addressing depressive symptoms/MDD or addressing social anxiety/SAD. In general, these interventions should aim to reduce the use of maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies, preventing them from turning into long established patterns of dealing with negative emotions, and to develop and improve the use of more adaptive strategies. In line with this suggestion, third wave therapies and interventions, like Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (Hayes, Strosahl, Wilson, 1999), Mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 1994) or Compassion Focused Therapy (Gilbert, 2005), could be of use. Acceptance of uncomfortable thoughts, feelings and sensations, conscious attention and letting go of old negative cognitive patterns, and compassionate acceptance of personal flaws or shortcomings may counteract the deleterious effect of self-blame and self-criticism.

Also, since these results were obtained in a considerable young sample (adolescents between 13 and 15 years old), our findings confirm the introduction of prevention programs at an early age.

Limitations

The current study has some limitations that should be mentioned. The research involves a sample of the general population of specific geographical areas of Portugal, being relevant that, in the future, the study should be replicated in broader samples of the community, representative of the Portuguese population, in order to allow generalization of results. In addition, the use of a clinical sample in future studies should also ensure more robust results.

The exclusive use of self-report questionnaires is also a limitation of this study. Using structured interviews and other informers (e.g., parents) should be included in future studies.

Other variables that were not controlled may have influenced subjects’ answers, such as social desirability.

The cross-sectional and correlational nature of this study should also be taken into consideration. In this sense, causal relations between variables cannot be established, only interpretations based on theoretical literature. Causal relations between variables should be analysed within a longitudinal design.

Given the aim of our study was to explore the predictive power of social anxiety over depression and a possible mediation effect of maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies in this relationship, adaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies have not been included. Further studies should include adaptive emotion regulation strategies. Additionally, in order to explore other mechanisms underlying social anxiety and depression, variables such as suppression, acceptance or experiential avoidance should be explored in future studies, relating social anxiety and depression.

In conclusion, this study clearly adds further evidence to the existing literature, showing the impact social anxiety may have in the development of depressive symptoms, either directly or indirectly, through self-blame. Subsequently, the use of maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation strategies, in this case, self-blame, can play an important role in the beginning and exacerbation of depressive symptoms. It is therefore reasonable to suggest that social anxiety and depression have a cause-and-effect relationship, at least in some cases.

The results suggest that having a better understanding of shared factors between SAD and MDD may be relevant both in theoretical terms and to develop more effective therapeutic interventions. In this sequence, tailoring interventions to include strategies addressing social anxiety and aimed at improving emotion regulation may have a positive impact on the treatment outcome.

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The Relation of Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem and Assertiveness Levels in Terms of Gender and Duration of Experience in Handball Players

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to compare the relations of self-efficacy, self-esteem and assertiveness level in handball players in terms of gender and duration of experience.

311 handball players participated to this study voluntarily and to select them simple random sampling technique was used. The sample comprised 150 female and 161 male handball players. The average age of the participants is $16,09 \pm 2,17$.

The Self-Efficacy Scale, the Stanley Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (SEI) and the Rathus Assertiveness Inventory (RAE) were used in collecting the data. In the analysis of data, the effect of independent variables on the levels of self-esteem and assertiveness in pairs T test was used, in more than two groups one way ANOVA and when the analysis of variance was significant at 0.05 level LSD (Least Significant Difference) analyses were used as post-hoc test in analyzing the data.

According to the research data, there was a significant difference at a level of mean scores of self-esteem and self-efficacy ($p < 0.05$). However, no significant difference was found in mean scores level of assertiveness ($p > 0.05$).

As a result, the levels of self-efficacy, self-esteem and assertiveness in handball players are important in terms of gender and years of experience.

Keywords: Handball player, Self-Efficacy, Assertiveness, Self-Esteem, Gender, Years of Experience

A Study of Need Assessment for Economy and Social Strategic Policy Development at the Province Level for Asian Economic Community

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted as a quantitative research. The researchers selected 860 citizens living in Nongkhai province as a group sample by using probability sampling. A stratified research tool was a questionnaire to collect data and study the necessity for economic and social development for the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). Descriptive statistics were applied including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. For inferential statistics, the researcher selected Chi-Square test, GFI, AGFI, RMR, SRMR and RMSEA to analyze data. The results show that according to confirmatory factor analysis of necessity towards provincial economic and social policy in citizen sector for AEC, a model from hypothesis is consistent to evident data at a good level, or the model is highly accurate. Considering with Chi-Square value at 973.39 and probability level is equal to .000, the Chi-Square statistics comparing to the degree of freedom is below the criteria. GFI value is at 0.95 and AGFI value is at 0.95, which is higher than the criteria (0.90). The RMSEA value is equal to 0.044 which is below 0.05. It can be concluded that the model from the hypothesis is consistent with the evident data. The researchers find that natural resource and environmental management with sustainability is the most influential to capabilities when the AEC begins. Providing connection within the regional countries for economic and social stability, as well as economic restructuring for a quality growth and sustainability are the following influential issues.

Keyword: necessity, economy and society, ASEAN Economic Community

Introduction

The world situation is changing rapidly in every field and development of science and technology is considered as an important factor affecting the way of life of people nowadays. As a result, we are required to be ready in developing ourselves to be able to help ourselves and other people properly leading to common development of Thailand. Thereby, education is considered as an important tool for using as the mechanism to build nation, people, and works in order to make all Thai people to have knowledge and potential in learning and developing themselves to earn a better quality of life and mutually develop Thailand to stand in global society peacefully)Jumlong Krutkhuntod, 2001(. During these several years, Thailand has had to encounter with several economic crises. Consequently, the Thai government in each period wished to enable Thailand to establish some national strategies helping to improve the competitive capacity that is consistent with changes in the world economy. Hence, former Thai governments determined the strategic framework on economic development in national plans through considering the overall economy systematically and aiming to maintain economic growth sustainably and qualitatively. Such a strategic framework emphasized the balance between economic development ground level and connecting the domestic economy with the global economy wisely with the commitment that the potential of Thai society remained and possibly developed. The important part of this success has been national development plans)Thongpol Promsakha Na Sakhonnakhon and Utit Sangkharat, 2013).

When considering establishment of Thailand's national development plans from the First National Economic and Social Development Plan to the Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan, it can be seen that those plans have been developed continuously under changing conditions and situations in various dimensions domestically and internationally. It can be noted that the Eighth National Economic and Social Development Plan (B.E. 2540-2544) was the important turning

point of national development planning emphasizing participation of all sectors in Thai society as well as emphasizing on “human as the center of development”. In addition, it also emphasized on adjusting development methods to be the holistic integration for contributing to balanced development. Subsequently, the Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan)B.E. 2545-2549(invited the “Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy” to be used as the guiding philosophy for national development and management along with the paradigm on holistic integrated development that was the consecutive policy from the Eighth National Economic and Social Development Plan. For the Tenth National Economic and Social Development Plan)B.E. 2550-2554(, the “Philosophy of Sufficiency Economy” was still used in practice. In addition, this plan also emphasized development with the “human as the center of development”. That was the consecutive policy from the Eighth and Ninth National Economic and Social Development Plan as well as emphasized on balanced development among humans, society, economy, and environment. The “immune system” was prepared by reinforcing the strength of domestic capital and risk management to be ready for encountering with domestic and international changing in order to achieve sustainable development and support entering ASEAN Economic Community equally as other countries.

ASEAN or Association of Southeast Asia Nations was established under The Bangkok Declaration on August 8th, 1967, by 5 countries including Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Subsequently, membership has expanded to include Brunei Darussalam and 4 new members including Cambodia, Lao, Myanmar, and Vietnam, that is briefly called “CLMV”. As a result, ASEAN members have become 10 countries in Southeast Asia region. ASEAN was established to promote political, economic, and social cooperation, peace and security of Southeast Asia region contributing political stability, economic, social, and cultural progress. In addition, since the international trading tends to be severe trade barrier, ASEAN more emphasizes on tightening and expanding economic and trading cooperation among members)Kritchayapak Unseree, 2011(.

The assembly of ASEAN Community may affect Thailand in several fields because free trading will contribute higher level of international investment and trading in some industries, especially industries with labors as main factor, making those industries encounter with some disadvantages because the wage of labors from neighboring countries may be lower causing offshoring of foreign investors and manufacturers move their)Kirida Bhaopichitr, 2015(. On the other hand, it is expected that Thailand will never encountered with the problem on skillful labor shortage in the future because there will be free labor mobility and labors from Myanmar, Lao, and Cambodia, will work in Thailand increasingly. In addition, some Thai people with English skills will work oversea because English is the official language for AEC. However, several border provinces are required to adjust themselves highly because they are the first gate of the country.

From analyzing on opportunities and effects of entering AEC in 2015, it was found that there were both negative and positive effects to manufacturers, entrepreneurs, labors, farmers, consumers, and general people. When considering on which province may be affected from such situation, it can be considered that Nong Khai would be quite affected because it was next to the border between Thailand and People’s Democratic Republic of Laos. As a result, Nong Khai province prepares its readiness by appointing a working group to coordinate and prepare information with all sectors for entering AEC as well as orienting the direction to drive Nong Khai to AEC for the same direction of integration. In addition, such working group must conclude action plan/project plans of all sectors to support AEC entering as well as provide some training on AEC to public agencies, private sector, and entrepreneurs, etc.)Wirat Limsuwat, 2013(.

Form above phenomena, it could be seen that Nong Khai province emphasizes on entering AEC in 2015 very much. However, it does not cover economic and social development. As a result, the researcher was interested in studying the needs for developing strategic policy on economy and society in provincial level in order to support AEC entering in the area of Nong Khai province through confirmatory factor analysis of needs toward economic and social policies in the provincial level of popular sector. In addition, the researcher also aims to study the possibility on responding to needs in popular sector’s social and economic policies in provincial level as well as to apply the economic theory on game theory for making decision on selecting appropriate social and economic strategies to be developed as the policies for responding to popular sector in provincial level for supporting AEC entering. Since economic theory is the concept and methodology on managing the existing and limited resources to gain ultimate efficiency or welfare, it is very useful to be applied with this research. It is

necessary for current national development to rely on economic knowledge for solving some economic problems in order to achieve the ultimate efficiency)Thailand Securities Institute, 2005). This allows us to perceive the factors that are urgently required to be developed for benefits of related agencies in using as the guidelines of social and economic development in provincial level as well as being ready for entering AEC.

Objectives

- 1. To analyze the confirmatory factors of needs toward social and economic policies in the provincial level of popular sector in order to support AEC entering.
- 2. To synthesize obtained information for preparing the pattern of needs responding in popular sector’s social and economic policies in the provincial level in order to support AEC entering.

Conceptual Framework

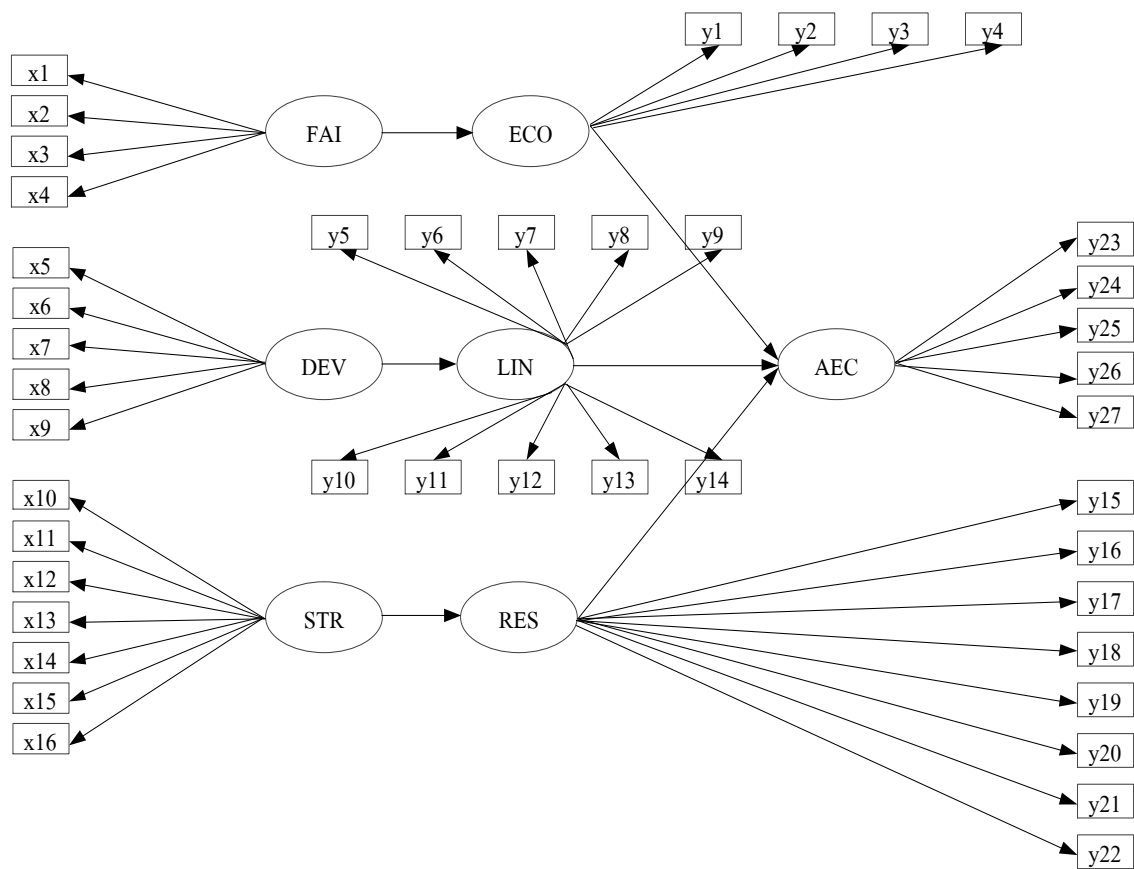


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Whereas:

| | |
|-----|--|
| FAI | means needs on building fairness in society. |
| DEV | means needs on developing people to lifetime learning society sustainably. |
| STR | means needs on agricultural strength, stability of food and energy. |
| ECO | means social and economic policy assessment on needs of economic restructuring to reach sustainable and qualitative growth. |
| LIN | means social and economic policy assessment on building the connection other countries in the same region for economic and social stability. |
| RES | means social and economic policy assessment on managing natural resources and environment sustainably. |
| AEC | means social and economic policy assessment on provincial society and economy for supporting AEC entering. |

Literature Review

Concept on Needs

Need refers to something that is insufficient or sufficient but necessary for some purposes (Barrow and Milburn. 1990 : 222-224) or basic motivation or necessity of living creatures including food, accommodation, apparel, and clean air (Dunter and Andrew. 1996 : 219).

For Stufflebeam and other (1985: 6-7), he defined need as something requiring responding or causing some benefits after responding. Needs are classified into 4 different views including discrepancy view, democratic view, analytic view, and diagnostic view.

Needs Assessment

Needs assessment is an official process determining the gaps between product or current result and needed result or product. These gaps are managed upon the priority and the most important one would be chosen for solving problems. Suwimol Wongwanitch (2007: 14) concluded that need assessment is the analysis process on the differences between current condition (what is) and expected condition (what should be) with priority system. Need assessment is to specify needs, to consider on conflicts judgment, to check natural conditions, to find the causes of needs, and to arrange the priority of something that will be occurred in the future, as the information for making decision on improvement, budget allocation, and preparing the organization's action plan.

Concepts and Theories on Economic and Social Development

Economic Development is a process increasing the Gross National Product of Thai people in long term. However, income distribution of Thai people must not worse than before. Moreover, economic development is also the process of growth, development, and changing with the purpose on improving the standard of quality of life of Thai people. Moreover, it also covers changing in structure of economic system.

Economic and Social Development

It could be concluded in 3 main issues including lacking of production opportunity in the light of labor shortage, lacking of technology and capital leading to poverty, unemployment, debts, and external reliance. Consequently, it causes economic disadvantages, lacking of bargaining power with external organizations, and lacking of economic power. In addition, the effects of expansion of business system also cause the problems on utilizing and destroying natural resources.

Concepts and Theories on Community Economy

Department of Provincial Administration, Ministry of Interior (Ministry of Interior, Department of Provincial Administration, 1998 A : 6- 9) has defined Community Economy as manufacturing, processing, consumption, trading, and service that is decided by the community to perform for community. In such view, it is in the light that Community Economy is a part of national economy and related agencies and/or persons must have mutual understanding and commitment to develop for progress and security of Thai society. In addition, it is necessary for all Thai people that the economic development from below, that is rural community, must relate with politics, administration, education, and culture of all Thai people. Community Economy is working for living with other people in the village. According to the implication of above definition, any villagers interested in establishing any agricultural group will be able to assemble to establish some farmer groups, cooperatives, foundation and association, as the center of occupational activities. Such operation of villagers will be operated in the community's area with the cooperation of Sub-District Administrative Organization (SAO) that is the form of Community Economy development.

Methodology

This research is a quantitative research conducted by using Path Analysis. Populations and sample group used in this research was people in Nong Khai province. For sample group, the researcher considered on the research data requiring advanced analytical statistic that was path analysis. As a result, the sample size was determined to be consistent with basic statistic, i.e., the large sample size must be used as the criteria for determining the sample size, namely, the sample size must be 20 people per 1 sample's parameter (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). The samples used in this research were people in Nong Khai province and there were 43 variables used in this research therefore the sample size of this research was 860 samples.

Tool used in this research was the questionnaire on needs toward social and economic development in the provincial level for supporting AEC entering. The case study of Nong Khai province was divided into 3 parts including: Part 1: questions on general information of respondents; Part 2: questions on needs toward economic and social development in the provincial level for supporting AEC entering; and Part 3: Suggestion.

The obtained data was collected from the source of primary data that was people in Nong Khai province as the information for developing economy and society in the provincial level for supporting AEC entering. Data was collected from the source of secondary data that was statistics, documents, concepts, theories, and researches related to needs toward social and economic development in the provincial level for supporting AEC entering. Data analysis was divided into 2 parts as follows:

Part 1: Analysis was conducted by using descriptive statistic, frequency, percentage)Chusri Wongratana, 2007), Mean, and Standard Deviation)Kalaya Wanitchbancha.)2005(.

Part 2: Analysis was conducted by using inferential statistics and path analysis. (Hair; et al. 2010: 672) suggested that there shall be the report on 3-4 indices identifying the harmony of data created by models and empirical data that were sufficient for considering whether the data created by models was consistent with empirical data. Chi-square and degree of freedom must be mainly reported along with absolute fit indices, incremental fit indices or comparative fit indices (Hair; et al. 2010: 668) at least one index per group. The absolute fit indices that are generally used are consisted of chi-square, GFI, AGFI, RMR, SRMR, and RMSEA. The incremental fit indices (comparative fit indices) that are generally used are consisted of NFI, NNFI, and CFI.

The procedures of this research's methodology were shown in Figure 2.

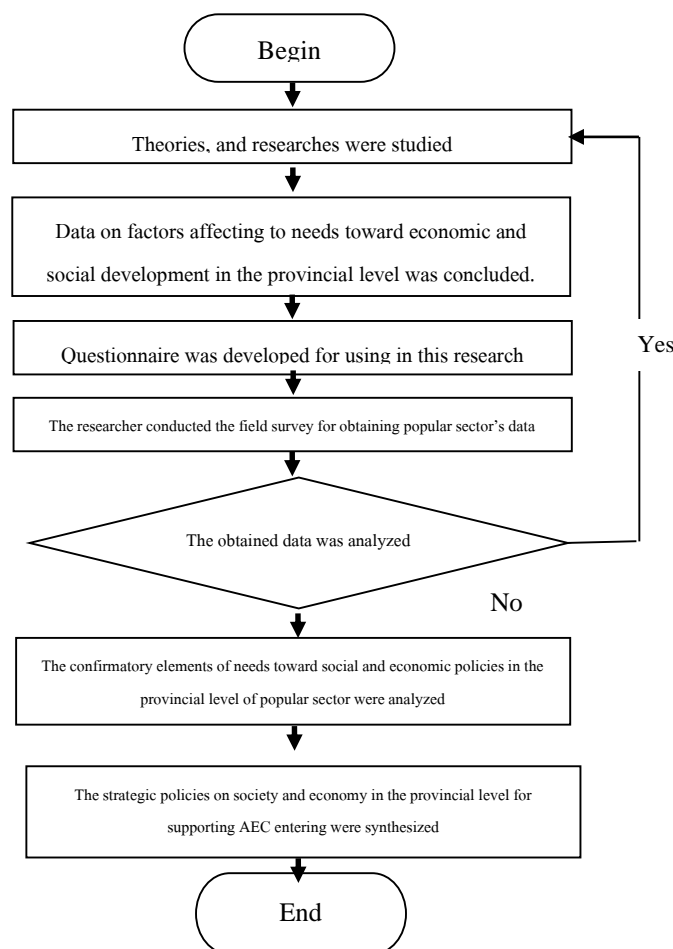


Figure 2: Flow Chart Showing Research Procedures

Results

More than half of sample group responding to the questionnaire were male with the age ranged from 41-50 years and personal income varied from 15,001 – 20,000 baht per month and they graduated in Bachelor Degree. For opinions on needs toward economic and social development in the provincial level for supporting AEC entering, the researcher studied on 7 dimensions of those comments including building fairness in society, developing people to lifetime learning society sustainably, agricultural strength, stability of food and energy, economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative growth, building connection with other countries in the same region for economic and social stability, managing natural resources and environment sustainably, and capacity to support AEC opening.

In addition, the results also showed that the overall opinion level towards building fairness in society was in high level)3.92(. When considering on each item, it was found that building economic and social stability for all Thai people and utilization of information technology and accessibility of data and information of occupational development were in the highest level followed by providing social services to all people upon their basic rights, emphasizing on building the immune in the level of building participation in decision making on national development, emphasizing on developing public service system to have good quality, and providing equal and extensive accessibility. The lowest opinion level was on reinforcing all sectors to increase the option of living in society and economic, social, and political participation with value and dignity enabling all people to express their thinking creatively and improve the potential and capacity of community in solving the community's problems. For developing people to lifetime learning society, it was in high level)3.98(. When considering on each item, it was found that promoting lifetime learning with emphasis on building the social stream to make the belief that learning was the duty of all Thai people, making all Thai people to seek for knowledge and love reading since childhood, and promoting mutual learning of people with different ages along with promoting organizations, groups of people, communities, Thai people, and all types of media as the creative learning sources, were in the highest level followed by reducing health risk factors by promoting Thai people to be healthy mentally and physically, developing knowledge and skills on taking care of health of themselves, their families, and communities building participation in developing public policy that was good for health. The lowest opinion level was restructuring and distribution of population that was promoting spouses with readiness to give more births of children and maintain the fertility rate not to be lower than current situation.

For the agricultural strength, stability of food and energy, the overall opinions were in high level)3.85(. When considering on each item, it was found that adding value of agricultural products throughout the production chain, supporting production and services of community in adding value of agricultural products, food, and energy, were in high level followed by building the stability of occupation and income of farmers, emphasizing on developing income security system of farmers to be stable covering all farmers. The lowest opinion level was adjusting public management system for reinforcing the stability of food and energy by supporting farmers, village philosopher network, private sector, and community to have the roles and participate in orienting the direction and planning agricultural production. When considering on economic structuring to sustainable and qualitative growth, the overall opinions were in high level)3.68(. When considering on each item, it was found that development of science, technology, research, and innovation drove economic restructuring to be grown sustainably and qualitatively by emphasizing on utilizing creativity, local wisdom, intellectual property to conduct researches for further development, passing on knowledge, commercial and social application, was in the highest level followed by economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative development by building the strength of entrepreneurs, especially, SME entrepreneurs, as well as driving to develop domestic economy to be strong and able to compete with others. The lowest opinion level was developing the competitive capacity to be efficient, equal, and fair, as well as emphasizing on developing financial market, capital market, and labors to support economic restructuring, developing intellectual property management system, and developing infrastructure and logistic system of Thailand.

For building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability, the overall opinions were in high level)3.95(. When considering on each item, it was found that reinforcing good international cooperation in supporting the economic growth with ethics and without any effect to environment was in the highest level followed by giving important participation in building the international society with good quality of life, preventing danger caused by terrorism, crime, drugs, disaster, and epidemic diseases, emphasizing on developing potential and readiness in preventing

and solving transnational problems on terrorism, drugs, and immigration problem. The lowest opinion level was promoting Thailand as the hub of investment and business operation in Asia as well as the hub of cooperation in regional development by providing some necessary privileges and conveniences for establishing the regional operation offices. For managing natural resources and environment sustainably, the overall opinions were in high level)3.97(. When considering on each item, it was found that developing natural resources and environmental management to be efficient, transparent, and integrated fair, emphasizing on promoting rights and developing the capacity of community in accessing and utilizing natural resources, improving laws for solving the problem on disparity in accessing and utilizing natural resources of community, were in the highest level followed by increasing the roles of Thailand in the world stage related to international framework agreement and mission on environment, studying on details and building understanding on missions, following up the situation, negotiation, and attitude of each country, developing public personnel for reinforcing their skills on negotiation, developing cooperation among ASEAN countries and some important trading partners. The lowest opinion level was conserving, restoring, and building the stability of natural resources and environment, emphasizing on conserving and restoring forest and conserved areas, developing database system and managing knowledge as the tool for planning and managing. For the capacity on supporting ASEAN opening, the overall opinions were in high level)3.88(. When considering on each item, it was found that the opinion on Community Economy was strong was in the highest level followed by providing works and income equally in all areas. The lowest opinion level was having complete utility system.

The result of analysis on the structure of needs toward economic and social policies in the provincial level of popular sector for supporting ASEAN entering was shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Statistic of Consistency of Hypothetical Model of Overall Empirical Data (after adjusting model)

| Item | Criteria | Calculated Value | Result |
|----------|------------------------------------|------------------|--------|
| X^2 | No statistical significance at .05 | 973.39 | - |
| df | - | 845 | - |
| p-value | $P > 0.05$ | 0.00 | - |
| X^2/df | $X^2/df < 2$ | 1.15 | Pass |
| CFI | The approach 1.0 | 0.95 | Pass |
| GFI | The approach 1.0 | 0.95 | Pass |
| AGFI | The approach 1.0 | 0.95 | Pass |
| RMSEA | The approach 0.0 | 0.044 | Pass |

From the analysis result of Table 1, it was found that hypothetical model was consistent with empirical data in good level with high accuracy that could be considered from chi-square with value of 973.39. The probability was .000 statistic of chi-square per independence level was less than specified criteria. Goodness of Fit Indices (GFI) was 0.95 and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Indices)AGFI(was 0.95 that was higher than criteria at 0.90. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA(was 0.044 that was lower than 0.05. As a result, it could be concluded that the hypothetical model was consistent with empirical data as shown in Figure 3.

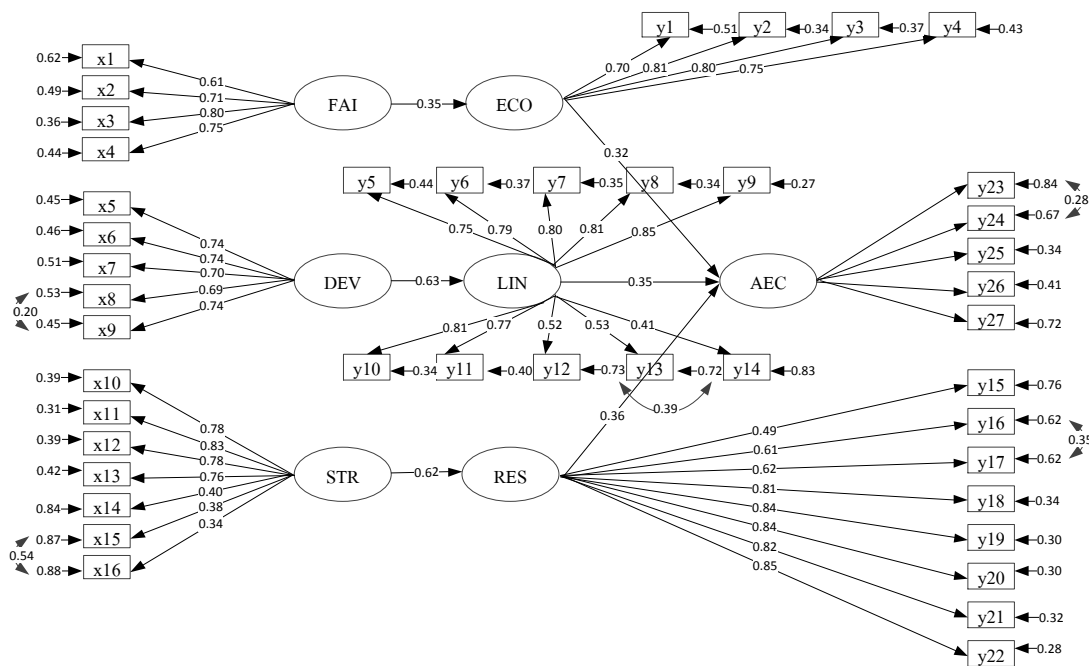


Figure 4: Casual Relationship Structural Model of Needs toward Economic and Social Policies in the Provincial Level of Popular Sector for Supporting ASEAN Entering

Discussion

For opinions on needs toward economic and social development in the provincial level for supporting ASEAN entering, the factor on building fairness in society required building economic and social stability to all people in Thai society and development of utilization of information technology and accessibility to data and information in occupational development. For developing people to lifetime learning society sustainably, lifetime learning must be promoted by emphasizing on building the social stream making learning as duty of all Thai people and making them to seek for knowledge and love reading since childhood as well as promoting mutual learning of people with different ages. When considering on agricultural strength and stability of food and energy, Nong Khai province must add the value of agricultural products throughout the production chain, support production and services of community in adding value to agricultural products, food, and energy. For economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative growth, it was found that it required development on science, technology, research, and innovation, to be the power for driving economic restructuring to be grown sustainably and qualitatively by emphasizing on utilizing creativity, local wisdom, intellectual property, and research for further knowledge, passing on knowledge, and commercial and social application. The results were consistent with those of Orawan Silawanitch)2011(who studied on the readiness for entering to labor market of ASEAN community. The results showed that development on research market would be the important mechanism for preparing the readiness of people in entering the labor market of ASEAN community.

On the other hand, needs toward development of building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability required reinforcing good international cooperation for supporting the economic growth with ethics without giving any environmental effect. For sustainable management of natural resources and environment, it required developing management system of natural resources and environment to be efficient, transparent, and integrated fair by emphasizing on reinforcing the capacity of community in accessing and utilizing natural resources as well as capacity in supporting ASEAN opening. The Community Economy must be strong by providing income equally to all areas. This result was consistent with that of Akeratch Amawal)2011(who studied on preparing the readiness of personnel to enter ASEAN community and she found that the factor on developing labor's skills for increasing income was the important factor for preparing the readiness of personnel to enter ASEAN community.

When considering on confirmatory factor analysis of needs toward popular sector's social and economic policies in the provincial sector for supporting AEC entering, the hypothetical model was consistent with empirical data in good criteria or the accuracy of model was very high. When considering on chi-square, its value was 973.39 with probability of .000. The statistic of chi-square per independence level was less than specified criteria. Goodness of Fit Indices (GFI) was 0.95 and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Indices (AGFI) was 0.95 that was higher than criteria at 0.90. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.044 that was lower than 0.05. As a result, it could be concluded that the hypothetical model was consistent with empirical data. It was also found that management of natural resources and environment had the highest level of direct influence on the capacity for supporting ASEAN opening followed by building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability and economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative growth.

Policy Recommendation

1. To build fairness in society, the social and economic stability must be built in order to make all people in Thai society to be sustainable and utilization of information technology and accessibility of data and information must be developed for occupational development.

2. To develop people to lifetime learning society sustainably, lifetime learning must be promoted by emphasizing on building the social stream making learning as their duty and making them to seek for knowledge and love reading since childhood as well as promoting mutual learning of people with different ages.

3. For agricultural strength and stability of food and energy, Nong Khai province must add value to agricultural products throughout the production chain and support production and services of community in adding value to agricultural products, food, and energy.

4. For economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative growth, it was found that it required development of science, technology, research, and innovation, as the power for driving economic restructuring to be grown sustainably and qualitatively by emphasizing on utilizing creativity, local wisdom, intellectual property, and research for further development, passing on knowledge, commercial and social application.

5. For building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability, it required good international cooperation for supporting the economic growth with ethics without giving any environmental effect. For sustainable management of natural resources and environment, it required managing natural resources and environment to be efficient, transparent, and integrated fair by emphasizing on promoting the rights and developing the capacity of community in accessing and utilizing natural resources.

6. For capacity in supporting ASEAN opening, it required building the Community Economy to be strong by providing works and income equally in all areas.

Suggestions Obtained from this Research

1. Sustainable management of natural resources and environment should be firstly emphasized because it had the highest level of direct influence on the capacity in supporting ASEAN opening. However, it must be emphasized along with development of agricultural strength and stability of food and energy.

2. Building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability should be secondly emphasized because it had the second level of direct influence on the capacity in supporting ASEAN opening. However, it must be emphasized along with developing people to lifetime learning society sustainably.

3. Economic restructuring to sustainable and qualitative growth should be thirdly emphasized because it had the capacity in supporting ASEAN opening after the level of building the connection with other countries in the same region for social and economic stability. However, it must be emphasized along with building fairness in society.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. The model of needs toward social and economic policies in the provincial level of popular sector for supporting ASEAN entering should be applied to nearby areas such as Loei, Nong Khai, etc.

2. Studied variables should be increased for improving the attractiveness and novelty of the research, for example, variable of providing occupational development to people in the community.

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Ethnic Diversity and the Demand of Federalism within the Identity in Nepal: Discovering the Equidistant Idea to Settle the Possible Disputes

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Abstract

This paper scrutinizes the interconnected issues on ethnic multiplicity and the demand of federalism with the identity in Nepal. This paper also gives constructive ideas to modernize ongoing identity politics and federalism issues. Nepal is recognized as multi-ethnic, having a cultural range, multi-castes, multilingual, and multi-religious. However, the demand of identity-based federalism is on the top. Especially, indigenous people, Dalit, Madhesi and other marginalized ethnic communities have been asking to establish identity-based federalism. The heterogeneous alliance of the first people's movement in 1990 terminated authoritarian rule and restored democracy which included left and right wing democrats, civil society supporters, the media, and representatives of marginalized ethnic and caste communities, highlighting an increasing awareness of ethnicity and caste in Nepalese identity politics. The trend was worsened in 1996-2006 as the Maoist rebels upon various identity based accusations and the failure of the new democracy to end inequality in order to mobilize support for their insurgency. Maoists used ethnic issues as a "card" and catalyzed them to get support. But the end use of identity politics became more widespread after the April movement in 2006 and the rise of activism among all ethnic and marginalized groups until now. In the contemporary situation, multiple identity-based federal reconstruction of the state may be better than single ethnic identity-based federalism. Federal mapping should be based on share of natural resources, demography, and geographical efficiency for its further development. Importantly, to solve the ethnic conflicts, state has to guarantee proportional representation of marginalized groups in government and administration.

Study on Science and Technology Policy Trend in Korea through Semantic Network Analysis

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As the social impact of science and technology is increasing day by day, it is increasing the importance of science and technology policy. The Third Science and Technology Basic Plan, which is to be the basis of Korea Science and Technology Policy, will be established in 2013. There is need to investigate the value-oriented and policy priorities of the Science and Technology Basic Plan. The purpose of this study is to find the policy priorities and strategies by utilizing semantic network analysis techniques.

Semantic network analysis (SNA) is a form of content analysis which extracts the network of relations between objects as expressed in a text, in order to represent a discursive model as a visible map. Coding texts as maps focuses the user on investigating meaning among texts by finding relationships among words and themes, and by identifying central words in specified relations. In other words, the relative importance of concepts and keywords can be measured by 'centrality indices'. Moreover, the iterative and statistically significant pattern of referential linkage between keywords can reveal clusters of keywords that represent common themes. The principle of producing the link is based on the measurement of co-occurrences, "defining word-pair link strength as the number of times each word occurs with another, every possible word pair has an occurrence distribution, whose values can range from zero on up". Word pairs within a window (a word set that becomes an imaginary unit of the document in a word x document matrix) can be given a 'connection weight', either equally regardless of distance or proportionally to how close the words are. With these methods, authors studying science communication have identified under-represented metaphors in the debate about artificial sweeteners, elite media's implicit framing strategies. While the co-occurrence model has become widely used, it is equally important to recognize the sequential relationship between the pair of words that precede or follow each other. Conceptual realms are very often hierarchically related, which means that an object A is inferred or thought about within the context of the object B, but not vice versa. This psychological assumption implies a potential methodology for classifying keywords with similar sequence patterns. In automatized analysis with sizable data, this relation can be derived out of the repetitive pattern of syntactic structure in the text ("How many times keyword A precedes B beyond the level of statistical significance?") and presented as a directed edge (arrow).

The data used to demonstrate the semantic network analysis were the keywords of the Third Science and Technology Basic Plan. The results of this study are as follows. First, the frequency of following words (technology, create, science, startup, investment) is high. It reflects the policy stance of the Republic of Korea. Park Geun-hye government has a policy stance for the creative economy. The word appears more related to the creative economy such as creative, jobs, startups, and commercialization. Secondly, research has shown a high correlation with the investment in a context where the Republic of Korea has continued to expand its research and development budget.

This study has the following meanings. First, it is faithfully reflected in the science and technology policy to ensure that the needs of the researchers and policy experts to maximize policy efficiency. Second, the case study that survey research and statistical techniques can be applied to establish policies and practices, or to reflect the Science and Technology Basic Plan in earnest for the establishment of research results in the future to expand when the methodology can be applied.

Does the Size of the Firm Influence the Levels of Investment in Working Capital?

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Abstract

The size of the firm has been used as a control variable in many studies that looked at the relationship between Working Capital Management and the profitability of firms. Within the framework of these studies, the relationship between the size of the firm and the investment in working capital has been considered in as much as the study highlights the correlation coefficient between the two. These studies make a tacit assumption that there exists a relationship between the size of the firm and the investment in working capital; however none of them explore this relationship beyond the mere assumption. This study looks at the relationship between the size of the firm and the investment in working capital through the lens of the number of days cash is tied up in Accounts Receivable, Inventory, Accounts Payable and the Cash Conversion Cycle. It tests for the significance of the difference in the mean values of these variables among small and large companies listed on the Industrial Sector of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange. Whilst the study shows that large companies are on average more efficient at managing their working capital, the analysis also shows no evidence of a statistically significant difference in the mean values of investment in working capital between large and small companies. This begs the question: “Is size of the firm really a factor when it comes to the investment in working capital?”

Keywords: Working Capital Management; Cash Conversion Cycle; Receivables Conversion Period; Inventory Conversion Period; Payables Deferral Period

Preliminary Feasibility Study Method for a Pilot Plant R&D Program in the Public Sector

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A Preliminary Feasibility Study (PFS) is an official ex-ante evaluation, managed by the Ministry of Strategy and Finance (MoSF) in South Korea. The fundamental purpose of the PFS is to provide important information to help MoSF decide whether to invest in new public R&D programs proposed by other government ministries. Since PFS is an official governmental evaluation system and has an important role for decision making upon launching a new large-scale R&D program, PFS should be carried out with a fact-based approach and produce reliable and commonly acceptable results. For this reason, a standard PFS guideline for R&D programs was first developed in 2011 and publication of a second version was published in 2014 by KISTEP, an authorized organization of PFS. These guidelines have contributed to improving consistency and productivity of PFS results. However, since government R&D programs are an aggregation of diverse activities with uncertainties having latent or indirect effectiveness, the standard PFS guideline could not always provide detailed methods for all type of R&D programs. KISTEP has directed many efforts towards developing a specified PFS methodology considering various types of R&D programs. The purpose of this study is to introduce PFS guideline of R&D programs and suggest a specified PFS methodology for pilot plant R&D programs.

According to the PFS guidelines, there are three major criteria to evaluate feasibility of a R&D program that should necessarily be taken into account; (1) technological analysis, (2) policy analysis and (3) economic analysis. These three analyses are conducted independently and their results are combined to deliver the final result by using an AHP (Analytic Hierarchy Process) method that has been utilized as a means of collecting the decision-making information for R&D programs in PFS. In the technological feasibility analysis, the completeness and appropriateness of an R&D program plan are analyzed. For this purpose, this part is consisting of 3 sub-criteria: R&D logic analysis, technological viability, and overlap possibility. 'R&D logic analysis' includes the whole framework for logical linkages and rationales of the examined R&D program. It can explain what the proposed program is, why the proposed program is valid, how investment results in the desired outcome, and who the private or public beneficiaries are. 'Technological viability' is to analyze the technology to be developed the R&D program in the aspect of technological characteristics. This factor consists of two elements: technology trend analysis and technology competitiveness analysis. Technology trend analysis measures a technology maturity for investment, and technology competitiveness analysis evaluates the competitive position of the principal research agents. 'Overlap possibility' can be useful for identifying delivery systems similar to the examined program to prevent overlapped investment into the same research topic. The feasibility analysis on policy deals with policy issues and other issues that could not be analyzed in technological feasibility analysis and economic feasibility analysis. The analysis of the consistency and initiative of an R&D program helps to understand the position of examined R&D program in the whole governmental science and technology policy, and potential risk analysis can help to identify risks included in an examined R&D program plan. The economic feasibility analysis is to analyze outcomes and spillover effects caused by an R&D program in the aspect of the efficiency of the fiscal management. Firstly, the appropriateness of the budget of a proposed R&D program plan is reviewed and analyzed with respect to hidden costs. By doing these, total cost related to the R&D program could be estimated appropriately. If the expected outcome or spillover effect of the R&D program could be quantified as the monetary value, the cost-benefit analysis is used for economic feasibility analysis. However, the outcome or spillover effect of the R&D program could not be quantified as was the monetary value and cost-effectiveness analysis was used.

A pilot plant R&D program is generally employed for performing process development, demonstrating technical feasibility and determining process economics prior to mass production for sale. Because of its intrinsic nature, the PFS standard guideline is too general to give detailed directions for most of pilot plant R&D programs. In order to solve this difficulty, we studied fundamentals of pilot plant R&D, PFS cases of previous pilot plant R&D programs, expert's interview, etc. So far, we developed the first draft of an extended PFS guideline for a pilot plant R&D program. Among PFS criteria, R&D logic analysis and technological viability in technological feasibility analysis are required to be modified considering pilot plant R&D nature and we proposed key questions to give directions for analyzing each sub-criterion; such as proper planning process, proper objective, proper logistics, technology readiness level and so on.

This study provides the following meanings. The PFS for public R&D programs plays an important role in government R&D investment as an ex-ante evaluation. The PFS standard guideline provides a systematic direction and key tools, which is very crucial to secure consistency and objectivity. Development of an extended PFS guideline of a pilot plant R&D program has begun. While maintaining its PFS standard structure, key questions and some tools are modified considering the nature of pilot plant R&D. For future work, elaboration of the PFS methodology specified for pilot plant R&D programs should be carried out and case study for applying this specified methodology to real PFS cases and will be very meaningful for further development.

Do International Tourism Receipts Contribute to Economic Growth? An Empirical Investigation

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Abstract

Evaluating the sources of economic growth is obviously important and numerous attempts have been made to judge the impact of many different factors on economic growth. Since some empirical studies have reported that international tourism receipts (ITR) are one of the important factors in economic growth, this paper empirically explores the impact of ITR on economic growth using a cross-country analysis based on data from 94 countries for the years 1995-2012. To this end, an endogenous growth theory model, explicitly including ITR, is applied. Subject to the appropriate caveats, the results show that ITR significantly contributes to economic growth in sample countries. Thus, the suggestion that countries can significantly enhance their economic growth by further increasing ITR seems to be supported by the results of this study.

Keywords: international tourism receipts; economic growth; cross-country analysis; growth model

The Economic Value of the Meteorological Service in Korea: A contingent Valuation Study

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Abstract: This study attempts to measure the WTP (willingness to pay) from the meteorological service by the contingent valuation (CV) method. The main objective of this study was to obtain estimates of WTP values for meteorological service in Korea. We apply the one and one-half bound dichotomous choice (OOHBDC) contingent valuation method to assess the additional WTP. Moreover, in order to handle the zero WTP responses, we apply a spike model. The WTP elicitation was within respondents' ability, and the mean WTP estimate was statistically significant. The monthly mean WTP estimate from the OOHBDC spike model was KRW 860 (USD 0.78) per household. The annual value to the national population was computed as KRW 16.1 billion (USD 14.6 million). This study applied the CV method to obtaining estimates of the WTP values of meteorological service in Korea. A highly educated population and recently developed skills in standard survey sampling and interviewing techniques provide a sound foundation for meeting the special requirements of CV studies. This quantitative information can be utilized in evaluating the policies related to the meteorological service.

Keywords: meteorological service; contingent valuation; willingness to pay; one-and-one-half bounded; spike model

The Role of Virtues in the Development of a Culture of Volunteering: A Virtue Ethics Approach for Encouraging Civic Engagement in the Romanian Post-communist Society

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Abstract

This paper aims to emphasize the dynamic of volunteering in a post-communist context from the perspective of a virtue ethics approach. Starting from the observation of the data and the results from the previous empirical studies and the last national report about the voluntary work in Romania, two categories of patterns emerge. The first category of patterns explains the lower level of civic engagement in ex-communist countries (the legacy of communism) and second category of patterns reveals the positive influence of the family and religion as essential predictors for volunteering. Inductively, both categories of patterns may lead to a possible theory from the field of virtue ethics regarding the importance of moral values and virtues in developing a culture of volunteering. In the light of Alasdair MacIntyre's work, *After Virtue*, this paper will conclude that virtues play a double role in the dynamic of volunteering: (1) virtuous citizens are more likely to volunteer and (2) volunteering is more likely to develop virtuous citizens.

Keywords: virtue ethics, virtues, volunteering, civic engagement, Alasdair MacIntyre

The Dynamics of a Duopoly Game with Relative Profit Delegation

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Abstract

We study the local and global dynamics of a nonlinear duopoly model a la Bertrand with managerial delegation contracts (relative profits). Our results aim at clarifying the effects of the interaction between the degree of product differentiation and the speed of adjustment of prices.

Keywords Bertrand duopoly; Local and global dynamics; Managerial firms; Relative profit delegation

Introduction

The present paper develops a mathematical analysis applied to a discrete time dynamic model by using a theoretical framework commonly used in static games in the industrial organisation literature (Miller & Pazgal, 2001, 2002). It also presents several numerical experiments to clarify the local and global properties of the dynamic system and gives some policy insights.

The economic setup takes into account the fact that the marginal bonus of each manager in our model drives the setting of prices from one period to the subsequent one. hence, results are given to show that if products are not too much substitutes or complements but prices are adjusted gradually by each manager, then entering the market prices close to each other or with significantly different ones does not matter for long-term performances of the economy, as trajectories tend to the same attractor. In contrast, problems of unpredictability can actually exist if for some reasons the speed of adjustment of prices becomes larger.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 sets up the duopoly model with price competition, horizontal differentiation and managerial firms that behave according to relative profit contracts. Section 3 studies local and global dynamics showing some results related to endogenous fluctuations, coexistence of attractors and the complex structure of both attractors and basins of attraction. Section 4 concludes.

The duopoly game

There exists a continuum of identical consumers that have preferences for goods q_1 , q_2 and k described by the separable utility function $V(q_1, q_2, k) = U(q_1, q_2) + k$, where $U(q_1, q_2) : \mathbb{R}_+^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is a twice differentiable function. Products q_1 and q_2 are produced by price-setting managerial firms in a duopoly market, while product k is produced by perfectly competitive firms. Each consumer maximises his own welfare function $V(q_1, q_2, k)$ subject to $p_1 q_1 + p_2 q_2 + k = M$, where $M > 0$ is his exogenous nominal income, which is assumed to be high enough to avoid the existence of corner solutions. The consumer's optimization problem can then be written as follows: $\max_{\{q_1, q_2\}} U(q_1, q_2) - p_1 q_1 - p_2 q_2 + M$. As is usual in literature (Singh & Vives, 1984; Hackner, 2000) utility function $U(q_1, q_2)$ is a quadratic function so that

$$U(q_1, q_2) = q_1 + q_2 - \frac{1}{2}(q_1^2 + q_2^2 + dq_1 q_2). \quad (1)$$

The negatively sloped indirect demand for product of firm i is $p_i = 1 - q_i - dq_j$ ($i, j = 1, 2, i \neq j$).

Therefore, the direct demand is given by

$$q_i = \frac{1 - p_i - d(1 - p_j)}{1 - d^2}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \quad i \neq j, \quad (2)$$

where $-1 < d < 1$ is the degree of horizontal product differentiation. When $d > 0$ (resp. $d < 0$) products are substitutes (resp. complements).

By setting $w = 0$ without loss of generality and knowing that price is the manager's control variable, the marginal bonus of i th player is given by:

$$\frac{\partial W_i}{\partial p_i} = \frac{1 - 2p_i - d(1 - p_j) - b_i dp_j}{1 - d^2}, \quad (3)$$

where $-1 < b_i < 1$ denotes manager i 's attitude ("type"). When $b_i > 0$ (resp. $b_i < 0$), manager i is more concerned in competition (resp. cooperation) with his rival. In the (static) related literature (Miller & Pazgal, 2002; Meccheri & Fanti, 2014), there exists a specific relationship between the optimal value of weight b_i and the degree of differentiation of products d . More precisely, if $d > 0$ (resp. $d < 0$) then $b_i < 0$ (resp. $b_i > 0$) at the optimum. If products are independent (that is, $d = 0$) we get $b_i = 0$.

Consider a discrete time dynamic setting where time is indexed by $t \in \mathbb{Z}_+$. By assuming players with limited information as in Bischi *et al.* (1998), the behavioural rule used for the setting of price from time t to time $t + 1$ is the following:

$$p'_i = p_i + \alpha p_i \frac{\partial W_i}{\partial p_i}, \quad (4)$$

where $'$ is the unit-time advancement operator and $\alpha > 0$ captures the speed of adjustment of firm i 's price from time t to time $t + 1$ given a marginal change in the manager's bonus. This parameter is an important determinant of the dynamic behaviour of the model, as pointed out later in this paper.

By using (2), (3) and (4) and assuming $x' = p'_1$, $x = p_1$, $y' = p'_2$, and $y = p_2$, the two-dimensional map that characterises the dynamics of prices in this model is:

$$T : \begin{cases} x' = xF(x, y) = x \left[1 + \alpha \left(\frac{(1-d)-2x+d(1-b_1)y}{1-d^2} \right) \right] \\ y' = yG(x, y) = y \left[1 + \alpha \left(\frac{(1-d)-2y+d(1-b_2)x}{1-d^2} \right) \right] \end{cases}, \quad (5)$$

where $\alpha > 0$, $d \in (-1, 1)$, $b_i \in (-1, 1)$, and $b_i d \in (-1, 0)$, $i = 1, 2$. Observe that, since prices and quantities of products of both varieties must be non-negative, then, according to direct demands in (2), the following relations must hold:

$$1 - x - d(1 - y) \geq 0 \text{ and } 1 - y - d(1 - x) \geq 0, x, y \geq 0.$$

As a consequence, prices must belong to an appropriate subset $Q \subset \mathbb{R}_+^2$, where Q is the convex polygon with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(0, 1 - d)$, $(1, 1)$ and $(1 - d, 0)$. The set $D \subseteq Q$ is the feasible set.

The dynamics of the economy

In order to describe the long-term dynamics produced by system T , it is important to determine its fixed points and the other invariant sets.

Proposition 1. *Let T be given by (5). Then:*

- (i) *T admits four fixed points for all parameter values, they are given by $E_0 = (0, 0)$, $E_1 = (\frac{1-d}{2}, 0)$, $E_2 = (0, \frac{1-d}{2})$ and $E^* = (x^*, y^*) = \left(\frac{(1-d)[2+d(1-b_1)]}{4-d^2(1-b_1)(1-b_2)}, \frac{(1-d)[2+d(1-b_2)]}{4-d^2(1-b_1)(1-b_2)} \right)$;*
- (ii) *T admits the following invariant sets for all parameter values, $I_x = \{(x, y) \in D : x \in [0, 1 - d], y = 0\}$ and $I_y = \{(x, y) \in D : y \in [0, 1 - d], x = 0\}$; the dynamics of T on such segments are governed by the one-dimensional maps $\phi_x(x) = x \left[1 + \alpha \frac{1-d-2x}{1-d^2} \right]$ and $\phi_y(y) = y \left[1 + \alpha \frac{1-d-2y}{1-d^2} \right]$.*

(iii) if $b_1 = b_2 = b$, then also the set $\Delta = \{(x,y) \in D : x \in [0,1], y = x\}$ is invariant for T and the dynamics of T on such a segment are governed by the one-dimensional map $\phi(x) =$

$$x \left[1 + \alpha \frac{1-d+[d(1-b)-2]x}{1-d^2} \right].$$

Notice that fixed points E_0 , E_1 and E_2 are located on the invariant coordinate axes and that E_1 and E_2 are in symmetrical positions with respect to the main diagonal. Furthermore, E^* is the unique interior Nash equilibrium of the game and it is feasible for all parameter values.

The local stability analysis of the four fixed points of T can be carried out by considering the Jacobian matrix associated with system T given by

$$J(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \alpha \left(\frac{1-d-4x+d(1-b_1)y}{1-d^2} \right) & \alpha \frac{d(1-b_1)}{1-d^2} x \\ \alpha \frac{d(1-b_2)}{1-d^2} y & 1 + \alpha \left(\frac{1-d-4y+d(1-b_2)x}{1-d^2} \right) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

By considering $J(x,y)$ evaluated at a fixed point, and taking into account the fact that the eigenvalues of a diagonal or a triangular matrix are given by the elements of the main diagonal, then it can easily be observed that E_0 is an unstable node, while E_1 and E_2 can be both unstable nodes or saddle points.

On the other hand, for what it concerns the dynamics embedded into the two invariant sets I_x and I_y , those are subsets of the two invariant semi-axes, by following a line of reasoning similar to the one proposed in Fanti *et al.* (2013), it can be observed that maps ϕ_x and ϕ_y are topologically conjugate to the standard logistic map $\omega' = \lambda\omega(1 - \omega)$ through a linear transformation. Thus, the dynamics generated by map T on the two invariant sets I_x and I_y are completely known, as these can be obtained from those of the logistic map. In particular, as long as an attractor A on these restrictions exists, then it increases in complexity when parameter d tends to ± 1 . However, by considering the eigenvalues of $J(x,0)$ and $J(0,y)$, it can easily be observed that sets I_x and I_y are repeller so that they cannot attract any (economic meaningful) initial condition $(x(0), y(0))$ having both positive components. For this reason, in the rest of the paper we focus on the dynamics produced by system T on $\mathbb{R}_+^2 \cap D$.

Given the analytical form of the Jacobian matrix and that of the interior fixed point, the local stability analysis of E^* is quite difficult to be studied analytically. Nevertheless, some results can be obtained by focusing on some limiting cases, while more general considerations can emerge by using numerical techniques.

About the local stability of Nash equilibrium E^* in the limiting case in which d is close to zero, the following Proposition can be proved.

Proposition 2. Let T be given by map (5). Then $\forall \alpha \in (0,2)$, $\exists I(0)$ such that E^* is locally stable $\forall d \in I(0)$.

Proof. Consider the Jacobian matrix $J(x,y)$ given by (6). Then if $d \rightarrow 0$, both $x^* \rightarrow 1/2$ and $y^* \rightarrow 1/2$, furthermore

$$J(x^*, y^*) \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

which is a diagonal matrix with eigenvalues $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda = 1 - \alpha$. Observe that if $\alpha \in (0,2)$ then $\lambda \in (-1,1)$ and consequently E^* is locally stable as long as d belongs to a suitable neighborhood of the origin. \square

Proposition 2 (i) is related to the local stability of the Nash equilibrium if the degree of horizontal differentiation between products is low enough, that is d is close to zero. In this case, for all values of manager's types b_1 and b_2 , E^* is locally stable as long as α is not too high. In addition, several numerical experiments show that in this case E^* is also *globally* stable, in the sense that it attracts every initial conditions taken on the interior of the feasible set D , representing economic meaningful initial conditions.

Furthermore, it can be verified that if $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ then the d -interval corresponding to the local stability of E^* tends to $(-1, 1)$, while such an interval gets smaller as α increases. This can be ascertained by comparing the bifurcation diagrams in Figure 1 (a) obtained for two different values of α . This result is in line with the related literature (Bischi *et al.*, 1998, 1999). Parameter α , in fact, weights the speed of adjustment of firm i 's price from time t to time $t + 1$ given a marginal change in the manager's bonus. *Ceteris paribus*, a higher value of α induce firms to over react (increase or reduce) given the value of the marginal bonus (positive or negative).

Another interesting question that can be considered is related to the case in which $\alpha \in (0, 2)$ and d is close to zero. A preliminary consideration is that if $d = 0$ and α crosses 2 then both λ_1 and λ_2 simultaneously cross -1 and consequently a flip bifurcation occurs causing two locally stable 2-period cycles. Since x^* , y^* and $J(x^*, y^*)$ are continuous with respect to α and d , if d is close to zero then $\lambda_1 = -1$ or $\lambda_2 = -1$ for two given values of α close to 2, i.e. the flip bifurcation still occurs, $\forall b_1, b_2$. An interesting phenomenon can be observed in this case.

Let $d \rightarrow 0$ (that is, products tend to be independent between each other). Then system T tends to a diagonal system where both equations are conjugated to the logistic map and the standard period doubling bifurcation is produced as α is varied. In addition, the eigenvalues λ_1 and λ_2 (associated to fixed point E^* or to a periodic point), tends to be equal. For this reason, if at a given value of $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$ a flip bifurcation occurs along one direction (for instance $\lambda_1 = -1$) then the same

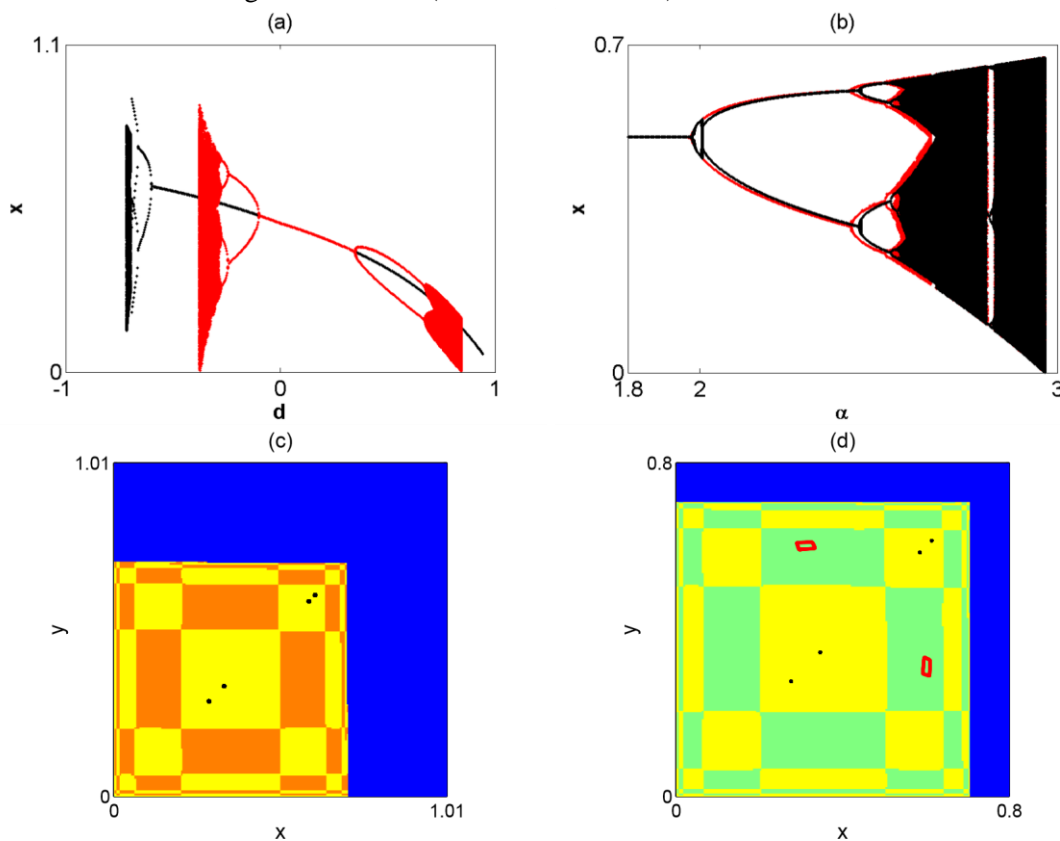


Figure 1: (a) One dimensional bifurcation diagrams of variable x w.r.t. d for $b_1 = 0.1$ and $b_2 = 0.2$ when $d < 0$ or $b_1 = -0.1$ and $b_2 = -0.2$ when $d \geq 0$ and two different values of α : $\alpha = 1.8$ in the red diagram while $\alpha = 0.8$ in the black diagram. (b) Parameter values: $d = -0.01$, $b_1 = 0.1$ and $b_2 = 0.2$. As α varies the bifurcation diagram in red is obtained for $x(0) = 0.2$ and $y(0) = 0.21$ while the bifurcation diagram in black is obtained if $x(0) = 0.37$ and $y(0) = 0.57$. (c) A 2-period cycle (white points) coexists with a 4-period cycle (black points) for $\alpha = 2.44$ and the other parameters as in (b). (d) A 4-period cycle (black points) coexists with two cyclic attracting invariant curves (red points) for $\alpha = 2.46$ and the other parameters as in (b).

flip bifurcation occurs along the other direction (for instance the one associated to λ_2) for a given value of α close to $\bar{\alpha}$ (to better understand this phenomenon, see Bischi & Kopel, 2003). This fact can be clarified by looking at Figure 1 (b), where two bifurcation diagrams with respect to α are plotted by fixing d close to zero but choosing different suitable initial conditions. The red diagram is obtained by starting from an initial condition $(x(0), y(0))$ with $x(0)$ close to $y(0)$ (that is firms enter the market with similar prices), while the black diagram is plotted by choosing $x(0)$ far enough from $y(0)$ (i.e., initial prices substantially differ). It can be observed that the two diagrams are very similar: they exhibit the period doubling bifurcation of the logistic map if α is not too high. However, a particular phenomenon of multistability with the creation of several coexisting attracting cycles can be observed when the speed of adjustment of prices is relatively large. For instance, Figure 1 (c) shows the existence of a locally stable 4-period cycle that coexists with a locally stable 2-period cycle when $\alpha = 2.44$, while in panel (d) the 4-period cycle coexists with two cyclical attracting closed invariant curves created around the unstable 2-period cycle (due to a Neimark–Sacker bifurcation) for $\alpha = 2.46$. In both panels the blue region represents the unfeasible set, while the two basins of attraction are depicted with different colors. In the numerical simulations presented in Figure 1 (c) and (d), it can be observed that one attractor is close to the diagonal (the 4-period cycle). Then, one may expect that initial conditions having $x(0)$ close to $y(0)$ will produce trajectories converging to such an attractor. Even if this evidence is, in some sense, correct, the reverse is not true, i.e. it is not true that firms starting from very different initial prices may perform in a similar way in the long term. In fact, when multistability arises, i.e. several attractors coexist, each of which with its own basin of attraction, the selected long-term state becomes path dependent and the structure of the basins of different attractors becomes crucial for predicting the long-term outcome of the economic system. More in detail, if the basins of attraction are connected sets, then the final evolution of the system can be predicted, while if the basins are composed by several non-connected sets, as in Figure 1 (c) and (d), then it is possible that an initial condition taken *close* to an attractor will produce a trajectory converging to the other one.

This result has non negligible policy consequences, as it encompasses elements related to the degree of product differentiation and the speed of adjustment of prices. Specifically, if products are not too much substitutes or complements but prices are adjusted gradually by each manager, then entering the market prices close to each other or with significantly different ones does not matter for long-term performances of the economy, as trajectories tend to the same attractor. In contrast, problems of unpredictability can actually exist if for some reasons the speed of adjustment of prices becomes larger. In this case, in fact, there are coexisting attractors, each of which with its own basin of attraction. Of course, policies aiming at changing strategically the initial condition may produce unpleasant results in this case. For instance, if a manager decides to reduce the initial price of his own product to increase the quantity produced and get higher profits, the economy may actually end up with significantly different findings.

Conclusions

This paper has taken a dynamic view of the behaviour of managerial firms in a repeated duopoly with price competition, horizontal differentiation and relative performance. By following the tradition of Bischi *et al.* (1998), this paper has stressed the importance of limited information and behavioural heterogeneity as sources of endogenous fluctuations and complex dynamics in a duopoly with managerial firms.

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Die Funktionen des Code-Switchings im DaF-Bereich mit den Migrantenkindern

Gönül Karasu, Anadolu University, Turkey

Es gibt drei unterschiedliche Arten von Code-Switching. Diese sind die intrasententialen, intersententialen und emblematischen Typen. Intrasentential steht für eine Äußerung, in der zwei oder mehrere Sprachen vermischt vorkommen und in der die grammatikalische Form der einen Sprache in die andere Sprache übernommen wird. Intersentential steht für Äußerungen der Sprecher, die in ganzen Sätzen in eine andere Sprache übergehen. Wenn spontane oder emotionale Ausdrücke wie Interjektionen oder Partikeln in die gesprochene Sprache aus der anderen Sprache eingesetzt werden, so spricht man vom emblematischen Code-Switching.

Die Frage zu dieser Forschung lautet wie folgt: Welche Typen von Code-Switching treten im Diskursverlauf der in der Türkei wohnhaften Migrantenkinder und der DaF-Lerner in der Türkei auf? Welche Funktionen weist der Sprachwechsel im Diskurs auf? Hat das Code-Switching bei den Zweitlernern Einfluss auf das (Er)lernen der DaF-Lerner?

Als Forschungsgegenstand wurden 3 Studenten, die Deutsch als Zweitsprache aus Österreich und 3 Studenten, die Deutsch als Fremdsprache in der Türkei gelernt haben und jetzt an der Fakultät für angehende Deutschlehrer studieren, ausgewählt. Dieser Gruppe wurde ein Saal zur Verfügung gestellt, wo sie ein gelenktes freies Gespräch führen konnten.

Die vorliegende Arbeit ist eine qualitative Forschung aus funktionalpragmatischer Sicht. Es wurde eine Gesprächsrunde mit diesen oben genannten 6 Studenten gebildet die eine halbe Stunde über ein gelenktes freies Thema diskutieren sollten. Dieses Gespräch wurde anhand EXmAralda transkribiert und nach dem Ziel der vorliegenden Arbeit rekonstruiert und dargestellt.

Mit dieser durch die Fallstudie erhobenen Daten wird die Beschreibung der Funktionen des Code-Switching im DaF-Bereich mit den Migrantenkindern und DaF-Lernern beabsichtigt.

Schlüsselwörter: Code-Switching, DaF-Unterricht, funktionale Pragmatik, Migrantenkinder

Sosyal Bilimler Bağlamında Yürütülen Nitel Araştırma Yöntemlerinde Araştırmacı Rol ve Sorumlulukları

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“Gerçek anlama başka bir şekilde ulaşamaz: anlamak ötekini kazanmak için kendinden biraz feragat etmek, bilinenden biraz uzaklaşmak için bilinmezi karşılamaktır.”

Özet:

Günümüzde bir bilim insanı ve hatta herhangi bir araştırmacı bu kimlikle çok farklı anlam katmanları ve bağlamlarla karşı karşıya kalmak durumundadır. Peki, araştırmacı bu bağlam ve anlam karmaşasında ne tür duraklar belirlemeli, hangi stratejileri geliştirerek, araştırma sürecinin gerek eleştirel, dilsel; gerek felsefi ve hatta sosyolojik hangi yönlerini göz önüne alarak yöntem ve yaklaşım tarzını belirlemelidir? Çok farklı anlam katmanları ve bağlamların oluşumunun nedeni yaşadığımız çağın bir yandan ekonomik, kültürel, sosyal ve politik bir hegemonyanın baskısı altında homojenleşen bir dünya düzeni ile küreselleşmenin en yoğun etki düzeneği içinde yer alması, öte taraftan dünya üzerinde sosyal ve ekonomik sınıfsal farkların derinleşmesi ve sosyal adaletsizliğin yoğunlaşarak, tek tip düşünce ve söylemlerin yayıldığı bu düzene karşı çılgınlığını yükselten sosyal ve kitlesel hareketlenmelerin giderek daha fazla yankı bulmasıdır. Bu bağlamda sorgulanması gereken sosyal bilimler kavşağında araştırmacının, özellikle nitel yöntemlerin kullanıldığı çalışmalarda, bütün bunların şekillendirdiği bir dünya düzleminde kendi özgün söylemini bilimsel temeller ışığında nasıl oluşturacağı ve bu toplumsal ve bireysel çapta giderek kendini derinleştiren hegemonyayı nasıl aşma kabiliyeti göstereceği, kendi özgür bilinci ve algılayışını ortaya koyma çabasına ne denli önem vereceğidir. Bu çerçevede, bu çalışmada sosyal bilimler bağlamında nitel araştırmacının rol ve sorumlulukları ikincil kaynaklar kullanılarak irdelenmiş ve nitel araştırma yürüten kişinin kişisel geçmişinin, kimlik bileşenlerinin, değer algısının ontolojik, metodolojik ve epistemolojik duruşu üzerindeki etkileri incelenerek değerlendirilmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: nitel araştırma, bilimsel yöntem, bilimsel araştırma, sosyal bilimler, araştırmacı rol ve sorumlulukları

Giriş:

Bireyler toplumun kendine has özellikleri dâhilinde birer aktördürler ve kendilerini genel de toplum özelde birey bazında ifade ederler. Bu nedenle nitel araştırmanın ışığı altında araştırmacının rolü değerlendirilmeli ve sosyal sorumluluğu belirlenmelidir. Nitel yöntemlerde araştırmacının kişisel tarihi, kimlik bileşenleri, değerleri, algısı, ontolojik, epistemolojik ve metodolojik duruşu önem kazanmaktadır. Araştırmadaki rolleri farklı hatta taban tabana zıt bile olsa araştırmacı ve sosyal aktörler arasında bir işbirliği olmakta ve iki taraf aynı araştırma kapsamında projeye katılım sağlamaktadırlar. Bu projenin gerçekleştirilmesi ile hem araştırmacı hem sosyal aktörler gerek politik, gerek kültürel olarak birbirlerini var eder ve belirler ve çoğu zaman yeni bir anlayış ve yaklaşımın temellerini birlikte atarlar. Bu nedenle araştırmacıda ki “öteki algısı” çok önemlidir. Aslında biz artık tarihi ve bu tarihle oluşmuş sosyokültürel yapıyı yekpare bir süreç ve insanlığın ortak kültürel hafızasını insani evrensel değerlerin biriktirildiği bir modeli olan bir gerçeklik ve varoluş şekli olarak algılayamayız. Günümüz toplumunun tipik özellikleri olan karmaşa, kaos durumu farklılıklar ve eşitsizlikler tek bir pencereden olayları ve olguları ele almayı ve yekpare bir anlayış edinmemizi engellemektedir. Global teorilerin yavaş yavaş terk edilişi, yeni şekillenene gerçeklik algısı ve aktörlerin öznel yorumları bu yaşanan çağa her zamankinden çok damgasını vurmuştur. Biz bugün artık insanlık olarak modernizmin düşüşüne ve

Paillé, P., & Mucchielli, A. (2003). *Analyse qualitative en sciences humaines et sociales*. Paris : Armand Colin.

toplumların nesnel akıl kavramının indirgenişine ve bir nevi reddine tanık olmaktadır. Nesnellik bir mit halini alırken, tüm söylemlerin normatif olduğu ve araştırmayı bu söylemlerin yönlendirdiği düşüncesinden giderek arınmaktadır. Çünkü araştırmacı artık sadece dünyayı tanımaya çalışmamakta, aynı zamanda demokratik bir toplumun inşasına da katkıda bulunma yoluna gitmektedir.

Bu bağlamda, modern toplum değerleri yeniden şekillenmekte ve yeni araştırma yaklaşımları çağdaş toplumun dönüşümsel dinamizmini oluştururken bu dinamik özne-nesne ilişkisini de kendi lehine değişime uğratmakta ve bu dönüşümle araştırmacı bilgi toplumunun günümüz kuram ve metodlarını aşmaktadır. Bu da araştırmacı için kendine özgü potansiyeline yönelik çalışma sistematiğine bütünüyle yeni bir anlayış ve algıyı beraberinde getirmektedir. Böylelikle sosyal aktörler ve araştırmacılar arasında kimlikli bileşenleri, çoklu bilgi kuramları ve yapabilecekleri noktasında bir işbirliğini gerekli kılmaktadır.

Nitel araştırmacının rolü

Nitel araştırmacının kendine has teorik bir çerçevesi vardır ve bu çerçeve çoğu zaman değişik eylemleri (veri toplama ve analiz süreçlerini) yani pratiği gerektirmektedir. Çalışmada farkı yaratan araştırmacının kimliği, algısı, anlam çatısı ve diğer bir deyişle dünyayı ve varoluşu yorumlama şeklidir. Araştırmacının önemi işte bu yorumlama, anlamlandırma süreçleriyle belirlenecektir. Bu algı ve anlam arayışı araştırmacıda sonu gelmez bir sorgulama ve değerlendirme çabasını da beraberinde getirir. İşte araştırmayı şekillendirecek olan bu çabanın niteliği ve özellikle araştırmacının dünyayı yorumlama ve anlamlandırma şeklidir. Önemli olan her zaman için dünyayı daha yaşanır bir yer haline getirmek arzusudur. Bu bağlamda araştırmacının “öteki” ile olan ilişkisi dikkati çeker.

Nitel araştırma yapan kişinin gereksiz sınıflamalardan, gerçekliğin durağan yorumlarından, olanı kodlama girişimlerinden ve etiketlemelerden kaçınması, toplum ve aktörler arasında dayanışma ve hoşgörüyü esas alması son derece önemlidir. Gerçekliği tartışılmaz olan bilgiler üretmek çeşitli şekillerde de olsa kimliği ve “ötekini varoluşunu” hâkimiyet altına alabilir. Bu durumu bir nevi kültür emperyalizmi (Said, 1995) olarak tanımlamak mümkündür. Oysaki nitel araştırmacı her türlü koşullama, dayatma, ötekini kendi düşünsel potasında eritme deneyimlerinden uzak kalarak, ikili ve toplumsal ilişkilerde karşılıklı diyalog ve anlayışın inşasına katkıda bulunma yolunu seçme çabasından hiçbir koşulda uzaklaşmamaya çalışır. Unutmamalıdır ki, bu diyalog ve anlayış araştırmacının kendi düşünsel evreninin de gelişmesine ve edimlerinin kolaylaşmasına yol açacaktır.

Böylelikle ötekini bir nesne durumuna dönüştürmeyerek, araştırmacı katılımcılara kendilerini ifade etme olanağı tanıyacak, bu olanak araştırma deseni ve düzlemine olumlu olarak yansımakla birlikte araştırmayı daha zengin öğelerle örülmüş bir düzenek haline getirecektir. Öteki ile olan diyalogunda araştırmacı benmerkezcilikten kaçınarak, daha eşitlikçi bir tutum takınır ve toplumsalın değerlendirilmesi noktasında daha sağlam bir araştırmaya önayak olur. Bu çaba, ona yeni bir soluk taşıyacak, araştırmacı kendi evreninden çıkarak sosyal ve aslında öteki olanın evreniyle buluşma şansı yakalayacaktır.

Dilbilimci Austin’in de deyimiyle *söylemek yapmaktır*. (1970) Bu da edimin nitel araştırmalarda ki rolünü bizde bir sorgulama alanı olarak açmaktadır. Nitel araştırmacıyı sadece bir teorisyen olarak düşünmek onu kendi öz içeriğinden soyutlamaktadır. Nitel yöntemlerde araştırmacı bir edim ağı içerisinde çoğu zaman katılımcı rolünü de üstlenerek araştırmanın odağında oturan bir unsurdur. Bu aksiyon onu eylemin ve olay örüntüsünün içine hapsedmemeli, araştırmacı katılımcı rolünü uygulama alanında iken mümkün olduğunca göz ardı etmez. Eylemin içinde olmak, ona dışarıdan bakmaktan çok farklıdır. Bu noktada araştırmacı kendi değer sistematiğini, yanlısamlarını, önyargılarını ve kabullerini fark eder ve buna uygun bir araştırma şeması geliştirme yoluna gidebilir. Teorinin kuruluşundan ve soyutlamalardan hem uzaktır, hem de teoriyi kendi yaşamsal pratiği ile oluşturma olanağına sahiptir. Bu durum araştırmacıya eylemsel konumlanışı getirir ve bu konum araştırmacıyı edilgen olmaktan çıkarıp etken bir niteliğe büründürerek araştırma süreçlerini derinleştirmekle kalmaz, araştırmacının sürecin kilit rolünü üstlenmesine yol açar. Artık araştırmayı belirleyen temel unsur araştırmacının varoluş mekanizmasını algılama, uygulama ve dönüştürme seçeneklerinde aranır hale gelir.

Nitel yöntem ve analizlerle düşünce statik olmaktan çıkar ve dinamik bir muhtevaya bürünür. Araştırmacının ve araştırmacının çift yönlü dinamizmi sonucu etkilemekle kalmaz aynı zamanda bilimselliğin temel ölçütü olur. Bu etkileşim bilim insanını uygulama alanıyla ve yaşamın bütün gerçekliğiyle akışı içinde çok sesli ve çok bileşenli sonuçlara ve bu bileşenlerin temel oluşturduğu yaklaşım şekillerine yöneltir. Bilim tikel, yekpare, kuru, özel, yerel olmaktan çıkar ve bu noktada

tümele, çok sesliliğe, genele ve evrensele ulaşır. Yine bu noktada bilim bir söylem düzeni (Foucault, 1987) olmaktan uzaklaşarak kendi özgün söylemini yaratma ve bu söyleme sahip çıkma olanağı elde eder. Zira söylemde düzen fikri bireyi hegemonyaya yöneltir. Bilimin ise asli işlevi bu söylem düzenini alt etmek ve ardındaki gerçekliği ortaya çıkararak, bu söylemin oluşturduğu maskeyi indirmektir.

Nitel araştırma çoğu zaman adından da anlaşılacağı üzere nitel olana ilişkin göndermelerle oluşturulur. Niceliksel veriler olayı veya olguyu sabitlemeye çalışırken, nitel araştırma desenleri olguyu sabitlemekten ziyade çeşitlendirmek ve değişik yönleri ile ele almak anlayışıyla ilerler. Nitel olan aynı zamanda görelidir, ancak bu dengeyi iyi kurmak gerekir. Aksi takdirde bilimsel düşünüş bundan olumsuz etkilenebilir. Çünkü değişik parametreler bizi çok değişik sonuçlara götürebilir ve sonuçları da verileri de girdileri de çok iyi okuma ve yorumlama becerisi gerektirir. Bu beceri kendiliğinden edinilmemekle birlikte uzun soluklu bir sürecin gerekliliklerini üstlenmemize ve üzerinde çok titizlikle düşünmemize gerek duyulan bir alandır. Bu nedenle araştırmacı her ne koşulda olursa olsun kendi yorumlama becerisini geliştirmek için her daim çalışma yoluna giderek, yorumlama yetisini geliştirecek okuma ve öğrenme faaliyetlerine girişmekten kaçınmaz. Araştırmacı hem sorgularken, hem araştırma sorusunu belirlerken, hem de sonuçları değerlendirirken çok katmanlı bir anlam tabakasıyla karşı karşıya olduğunun bilincinde olarak bunu geliştirecek mekanizmaları kendinde harekete geçirir ve gerekli kültürel, sosyal ve bilimsel altyapı ile donanımlı olmak için çaba sarf eder. Bu donanım kilit bir role sahip olmakla birlikte, araştırmacının kabullerini, önyargılarını, hazır bulunuşluğunu, eylemini, düşünüş sistematığını etkiler. Dolayısıyla bu donanım araştırmanın şekillenişini etkiler ve ondan etkilenir. Çünkü nitel araştırmalarda araştırmacı bilgiyi salt olgusal olarak kavramlarıyla ele almaktan ziyade, bilginin bütün perdelerini indirerek ardında yatan gerekçeleri sorgular ve bu sorgulamayı harekete geçirmek için herhangi bir araştırmacıdan çok daha fazla bu donanıma sahip olmaya çabalar. Bilginin ardındaki gerçek çoğu zaman rahatsız edicidir. Araştırmacı bu rahatsızlığı ve huzursuzluğu da duyumsamayı ve bu duyumu cesaretle üstlenecek bir tavır takınma yolunu seçmeyi bilir. Çünkü özünde bu rahatsızlık ve huzursuzluk hali onu gerçek bilgiye götürecek tek meşaledir.

Nitel araştırmalarda araştırmacı-katılımcı işbirliği

Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi olarak nitel araştırma her zaman için belli bir yorumu beraberinde getirir. Araştırmacı adeta bir brikolaj veya montaj (Denzin, Lincoln, 2000) işlemi yapmaktadır. Bu süreçte gözlemleri, araştırma günlükleri, fotoğraf ve toplanan bütün dokümanlar veri olarak araştırmacının yorumlama, değerlendirme, sınıflandırma, temalandırma, kodlama işlemleri birer montajın bileşenleri gibi düşünülebilir. Araştırmacı film yapan bir yönetmen gibi bu değişik verileri bir araya getirerek adeta yeni bir anlam oluşturur. Bu oluşan anlam araştırmacının hem kendi varoluşuna hem de toplumsal yakalamasına katkıda bulunur. Bu katkı tek taraflı olarak düşünülemez, bu katkıyı araştırmacı ve katılımcı aslında çoğu zaman birlikte inşa ederler. Bu durum araştırmacının içinde yaşadığı toplumu ve reflekslerini çok iyi tanımasını gerektirir.

Araştırmacı içinde yaşadığı toplumun sosyal, düşünsel, kültürel, ekonomik ve birey bazında psikolojik yapısını çok iyi analiz ederek, onların ritüellerini, kabullerini, ifade şekillerini, sembollerini, kodlarını değerlendirmeyi bilir. Çünkü bir toplum kuramı oluşturmanın yolu o toplumu bütün bileşenleri ile tanımayı ve bu bileşenlerin iyi bir okumasını yapma becerisini elzem kılar. Toplumun araştırmacıyı araştırmacının da toplumu etkilediği, karşılıklı bir döngüsel süreç söz konusudur. Bu süreç hiçbir koşulda araştırmacı tarafından küçümsenmez ve araştırmanın temel dinamiklerinden birinin bu döngüde süregelen bir akışı sağlamanın olduğu asla araştırmacı tarafından göz ardı edilmez. Böylelikle araştırmacı önüne çıkabilecek engelleri daha rahat alt edebilecek bir donanıma kavuşacak ve bu da araştırma desenini oluşturmasında, araştırma sorusunu belirlemesinde ve bulguların yorumlanmasında ona kendini daha güvende hissedebileceği bir ortam oluşturacaktır.

Araştırmacının karşılaşabileceği diğer bir zorlukta nitel araştırmaların süregelen ve dinamik aynı zamanda takibi gerektiren bir niteliğe sahip olması gerçeğinde yatar. Bu gerçek araştırmanın bazen seyrini değiştirebileceği gibi, bazı durumlarda araştırma sorusundan bulgulara kadar hemen hemen her aşamayı kendi çapında etkileme gücüne sahiptir. Araştırmanın dinamizmi de bu gerçeklikten kaynak alır. Araştırmacı bu koşullarda sürekli olarak bu dinamizme kendi cevaplarıyla karşılık verebilecek bir pozisyon ve duyarlılıkta olmayı bilir. Bu duyarlılığa sahip olmak her zaman için araştırmayı daha özgün sonuçlara götürecek dinamizmle birleşince araştırmacının kimliksel ve kişilik özelliklerinin araştırmanın yürütülmesi safhalarında ne denli önemli olduğunu anlamasına ve bu safhaların her birinin birer dönüm noktası olarak değerlendirilerek araştırmacının farklı yönlerini de keşfetmesine katkı sunar.

İnsan faktörü sosyal bilimlerde çok önemlidir ve sürekli değişken bir yapı arz eder. Bu yapıyı bilimsel şablonlara, kuru bir akılcılığa, modernist bir algıya, tek bir bakış açısının sığılığına, anket verilerinin rakamsal ifadelerinde ki dar anlayışına oturtmak çoğu zaman oldukça güçtür. İnsan çok bileşenli, çok renkli, çok katmanlı, çok sesli, çok kültürlü bir varoluşa sahiptir. Bu varoluş nitel araştırmanın doğuşunda temel oluşturur. Nitel araştırma da bu çok bileşenli yapıya cevap verebilme ihtiyacından doğmuştur. Bu ihtiyaç araştırmayı araştırmacısından, sorularına, veri toplama tekniklerinden, yorumlanmalarına ve hatta bulgulara kadar bütünüyle etkiler niteliktedir. Zaten bu ihtiyacın kendisi bilimsel şemaları düşündüğümüzde nitel bir ihtiyaçtır. En azından öyle olmalıdır. Daha özerk, daha demokratik, daha renkli ve tüm seslerin ve renklerin kapsama dâhil edilebildiği bir toplum ve dünya arzusu bu ihtiyaç ile dile getirilir.

Etkin Katılımcı olarak araştırmacının sorumlulukları

Etkin bir çalışma yöntemi yaratmanın temel koşulu, etkin bir düşünüş ve algı mekanizmasına sahip olmak ve edilgenliği sürekli olarak yadsımdır. Bu nedenle nitel araştırmalarda araştırmacı sadece alıcı, kaydedici, biriktirici pozisyonunda olmayı reddeder, sürecin etkin katılımcısı olarak onu kuramını yaratmaya götürecektir etkinliğe kavuşturacak bir bakış ve duruş sergiler. Bu duruş araştırmacı için kilit bir rol üstlenmiştir. Ona ötekinin kapılarını açacak tek anahtar bu zenginliği olacaktır ve unutulmamalıdır ki nitel yöntemlerde araştırmacı daha özgün yorumlara ulaşmak için ötekiyle ilişkisini dengeleyip, ötekinin kapısını ardına kadar zorlar, ancak bunu öyle bir hassasiyetle yapar ki bu zorlama bir baskı unsuru olmaktan çıkıp gönüllü bir eyleme, karşılıklı bir uzlaşmaya götürecektir bir mahiyete bürünür. Çünkü araştırmacı ötekinin sınırlarıyla sınırlandırılmış, ancak onun açtığı yol kadar yol alabileceği gerçeğini asla aklından ve bilincinden uzaklaştırmaz. Bu bilinçle hareket etmek her zaman için araştırmacının ve katılımcının lehine sonuçlar gösterecektir, aksi halde araştırmacı katılımcının direnci ile karşılaşabileceğini ve bu direnci kırmak için uzun ve zorlu uğraşlar vermek zorunda kalacağını asla unutmamalıdır.

Nitel araştırma bizi tikelden tümele, yerelden evrensele, bireyden topluma, özelden genele taşıma özelliği gösterdiğinden öncelikle araştırma ortamı araştırmacı açısından son derece önem taşımaktadır. Öncelikle her araştırma biriciktir. Bu özelliği ile de nitel araştırma kendi özgün sistematiğini kura gelmiştir. Hem kendi olmakta direktir, hem öteki ile bütünleşir. Bu duruş ve bütünlük nitel yöntemi belirleyen temel unsurdur. Araştırma dâhilinde söylemler analiz edilir, hikâye örüntüleri, filmler, romanlar, anlatılar, dokümanlar, görüşmeler analiz edilir ve çok değişik toplum katmanlarından insanlar ve bireylerle, kurumsal temsilcilerle görüşmeler yapılır. Bu özellikleri ile tekildir. Ancak bu analizler toplumla yüzleşince çoğul bir kimliğe bürünürler.

Araştırma da amaç aynı sonuçlara ulaşmak değil, olguları derinlemesine analiz etmek ve bu analizlerden yola çıkarak yeni bir yorumsal algı geliştirmektir. Bu algı sadece elit bir tabakanın tekelinde kalmamalı, en alt katmanlara kadar inmelidir. Bu iniş her zaman için arzu edilmekle birlikte son derece zorlu bir süreci beraberinde getirir. Amaçlar sonuçları genellemek, geneli özelde yakalama becerisi göstermekte değil, araştırmayı belirsizliklere de açmak ve bu belirsizlik ormanında bilinene, belirene, var olan ancak üstü örtük olan gerçeklere ulaşmaktır. Üzerinde ki örtünün, maskenin kaldırıldığı gerçek huzursuz edici bile olsa bilimsel gereklilik bu yolda adım atma cesaretini göstermekle olur. Kaldı ki insanın malzeme olduğu çalışmalarda bu karmaşık ilişki ağını ortaya çıkarmak, bu ilişkiyi yapı söküne (Derrida, 2011) uğratmak son derece zahmetli ve uzun soluklu emek isteyen bir süreçtir. Araştırmacı kimliği, kişiliği, dünyayı algılayış şekli, varoluşsal becerisi ile bu sürecin kilit rolünü en başından beri daha araştırmaya giriştiği andan itibaren üstlenir.

Sonuç:

Bilimsel araştırmalar her şeyden önce insanlığın sınıandığı kuramlardır, insanlık gücü bilim çerçevesinde sınanır. Çünkü bilim insanlığı her zaman için arzu edilen sonuçlara götürmez. Bu noktada bilimsel etik devreye girer. Etik çerçeve bilim söz konusu olunca sınırlayıcı olmaktan uzak olması beklenmekle birlikte, insanı temel alan yaklaşımların çok önemli bir yapıtaşısıdır. Araştırmacı bu nedenle uygulama alanında bu etik-bilim dengesini de göz önünde bulundurmaya asla ihmal etmemeli, insanı temel alan yaklaşımların ancak insani uzlaşımın değerleri üzerine inşa edilebileceği gerçeğinden asla uzaklaşmamalıdır.

Araştırmacı nitel bir tutum takınarak, sürekli olarak öncelikle toplumsal dinamiğin içinde araştırma süresince ve hatta daha sonrasında onunla yüz yüze olacağı gerçeğini yadsımaz. Toplumun

nabzını tutmak ve bilimin potasında eritmek hiçte görüldüğü kadar kolay bir iş değildir. Çünkü çoğu zaman toplumlar bilimsel kavramların içine sığmaz. Bu düzlemde araştırmacı kendisini bilimsel bir ışık saçan özne, toplumu da bilimin hegemonyasında olan bir nesne olarak görmekten kaçınarak , hem kendine hem de topluma bir hareket alanı bırakmayı seçer. Bu çok katmanlı ve çok anlamlı düzeneğin ise en iyi yaşam bulma alanı nitel araştırmalardır.

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Märchen zur Förderung des interkulturellen Lernens im DaF-Unterricht am Beispiel von Grimm's "Aschenputtel" und Eflatun Cem Güney's "Sırmalı Pabuç"

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Beim interkulturellen Lernen geht es um einen interaktiven Lernprozess, in dem man sich sowohl mit der eigenen als auch mit der fremden Kultur auseinandersetzt. In dieser Auseinandersetzung eignet man sich einerseits Grundwissen über Lebensweisen, Verhaltensweisen, Denkmuster von fremden Kulturen an. Andererseits kann im Spiegel dieser fremden Kultur die eigene Kultur hinterfragt und dabei die Vorurteile, Ängste oder Spannungen über die fremde Kultur überprüft und abgebaut werden. So kann durch interkulturelles Lernen die Basis für ein tolerantes und friedvolles Zusammenleben in der Gesellschaft geleistet werden. Demnach sollte das interkulturelle Lernen ein integraler Bestandteil der Bildung und Erziehung sein.

Märchen sind nicht nur vorteilhaft aufgrund der hohen Motivation, der Verwirklichung von Lernzielen wie kommunikativer, lexikalischer, grammatikalischer Art, sondern vor allem auch interkultureller Art. Märchen spiegeln in ihrer natürlichen, bildhaften Weise die Kultur ihres Landes. Deshalb bieten vor allem Vergleiche von Märchenvariationen ein großes Potential zum interkulturellen Lernen im DaF-Unterricht an.

Das Hauptinteresse dieser Arbeit liegt in der praxisorientierten Vermittlung von Märchen im Fremdsprachenunterricht Deutsch und zum Einsatz dieser auch zur Förderung des interkulturellen Lernens.

In dieser Arbeit wurden im Lehrjahr 2014-2015 an der Anadolu Universität der DaF – Abteilung mit den Studenten des 2.Semesters die 2 oben genannten Märchenvariationen von Grimm und Eflatun Cem Güney im Lesefertigkeitsunterricht bearbeitet. Dabei wurde mit Roches methodischem Ansatz der interkulturellen Sprachdidaktik, die in diesem Beitrag - zur Umsetzung des interkulturellen Lernens im Fremdsprachenunterricht- auf die Märchen übertragen wurde, gearbeitet.

Schlüsselwörter: Kinder-und Jugendliteratur, Märchen, Märchendidaktik, DaF-Unterricht, Interkulturelles Lernen

Yabancı Dil Öğrencilerinin Eğitsel Yönergeleri Okurken Karşılaştıkları Sorunlar

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Özet

Hayatımızın her alanında bize bir şeyleri yapmamızı, yapmaktan kaçınmamızı söyleyen ya da nasıl yapacağımızı belirten bir dizi yönerge ve talimatlara uymak durumunda kalırız. Bu yönergeler ve talimatlar toplumsal düzeni sağlamak, hak ve sorumlulukları düzenlemek açısından büyük bir önem arz etmektedir.

Eğitim alanında ise yönergeler ayrı bir öneme sahiptir. Zira öğretim süreci boyunca öğretmen ulaşılmak istenen hedefler doğrultusunda öğrencilere bir dizi iş ve görevler verir. Dolayısıyla da verdiği çalışmanın nasıl yapılacağını ifade eden yönergeleri sıkça kullanmak durumunda kalır.

Alanda yürütülen çalışmalara bakıldığında öğrencilerin anadilde verilen yönergeleri bile zaman zaman anlamakta güçlük çektiklerini, karmaşık yönergeler söz konusu olduğunda istenilen işin bir kısmını yapıp diğerlerini unuttuklarını vurgulayan araştırmaların sayısının yadsınamayacak boyutta olduğu görülmektedir.

Yönerge okuma konusu yabancı dil öğrenimi söz konusu olduğunda da önemli bir sorun olarak karşımıza çıkmakta ve öğrenci başarısını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir. Yabancı dilde okuma ve okuduğunu anlama, anadile kıyasla, daha çok çaba ve deneyim gerektiren, daha uzun soluklu bir süreçtir. Öğrenciler genellikle bir yanlış yapma, yanlış anlama korkusu yaşarlar. Genellikle okusalar bile anlayamayacaklarını düşünürler dolayısıyla da ya hiç okumazlar ya da okudukları halde emin olmak için öğretmene sorma, onaylatma yönünde bir tutum sergilerler.

Bu çalışmada yabancı dil öğrencilerinin yönerge okuma ve çözümleme sürecinde yaşadıkları sorunları ve nedenlerini tartışmak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu bağlamda “bir dilde okumayı bilen, eğitsel yönergeleri doğru okur” düşüncesinin terk edilmesi gerektiği ve otonom öğrenciler yetiştirmek için yabancı dil sınıflarında eğitsel yönerge okuma becerisinin öğretilmesi gerektiği vurgulanmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: yabancı dil öğrenimi, yönerge, okuma, anlama/çözümleme sorunları

Giriş

Günlük yaşantımızda gerek yazılı, gerekse sözlü yönergelerle sıkça karşılaşırız. Bu yönergeler genellikle bir şeyleri yasaklamak, yapmamızı buyurmak ya da nasıl yapacağımızı ifade etmek üzere oluşturulmuşlardır. Dolayısıyla da yönergeleri okumak, dinlemek ve anlamak yaşantımız boyunca bilinçli ya da bilinçsiz bir şekilde gerçekleştirdiğimiz edimlerdir.

Eğitim/öğretim ise eğitsel amaçlı yönergelerin yoğunlukta kullanıldığı alandır. Zira hem ders kitapları, hem de öğretmenler öğrencileri öğrenim gördükleri alanla ilgili bir dizi iş ve görevlere yönlendirmek amacıyla bu yönergeleri sıkça kullanmak durumunda kalırlar. Ancak bu yönergelerin her zaman amacına ulaştığını söylemek mümkün değildir. Alanda yapılan araştırmalara bakıldığında öğrencilerin anadilde verilen yönergeleri bile zaman zaman anlamakta güçlük çektikleri, karmaşık yönergeler söz konusu olduğunda istenilen işin bir kısmını yapıp diğerlerini unuttukları sonucuna varan birçok çalışmanın olduğu saptanmıştır (Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003; Caumet, 2001; Lengagne, 2005).

Yabancı dil öğrenimi söz konusu olduğunda yönergeler farklı bir önem kazanmaktadır. Zira öğrenciler henüz öğrenme aşamasında oldukları bir dilde yönergeleri okumak ve anlamak durumunda kalırlar. Bu durumda kaynak kitapları hazırlayan uzmanlara ve sınıfta öğretmenlere büyük bir sorumluluk düşmektedir. Yönergelerin açık seçik ifade edilmemiş olması, istenilen iş ile uyumlu olmaması, öğrencilerin dil seviyesine uygun olmaması gibi nedenler öğrencinin performansını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir (Bourgeois, 2006).

Bu konuda yaşanan güçlüklerin kaynağını sadece öğretmen ya da uzmanlarda aramak elbette ki doğru bir yaklaşım olmaz. Öğrencinin dikkatsizliği, yönerge okuma alışkanlığının olmaması, nasıl okuması

gerektiğini bilmemesi, belli bir yaklaşım ya da stratejisinin olmaması gibi nedenler ise bizzat öğrencinin kendisinden kaynaklanan sorunlar olarak sıralanabilir (Lengagne, 2005).

Dil öğretiminde iletişimsel yöntemlerin ortaya çıkmasıyla birlikte öğretmenin görev ve sorumlulukları yeniden tanımlanmış ve öğretmen yol gösterici görevini üstlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla, öğrencilerin yaşadıkları bu güçlükleri aşmalarına yardımcı olabilmek için öncelikle bir dilde metin okuma ve yönerge okuma becerisinin farklı işlem ve süreçleri gerektirdiğinin göz ardı edilememesi gerekir. Otonom öğrenciler yetiştirmeyi hedefleyen bir öğretmen diğer becerilerde olduğu gibi yönerge okuma/anlama konusunda da öğrencilerine belli teknik ve stratejileri edindirmeyi ilke olarak benimsemelidir.

1. Yönerge Nedir?

Yönerge eğitim/öğretim ortamında büyük bir öneme sahiptir. Öğretmen yönergeler vasıtasıyla öğrencilere yapmalarını istediği işi en uygun koşullarda yerine getirebilmelerini sağlayacak ipuçları verir: çalışmanın amacı, izlenecek yol, etkinliği planlama vb. (Dictionnaire de Pédagogie, 1996: 64).

Genel anlamda yönergelerde emir kipi kullanılmaktadır. Bu da talimat ile yönergenin eşdeğer sayılmasına neden olmaktadır. Oysaki talimat yerine getirilmesi zorunlu bir davranışı bildirirken, yönerge bir iş yapılırken uygulanacak işlemleri, atılacak adımları bildirir. Bir başka deyişle, yönerge eyleme geçmeden önce alınacak karar ya da kararların bilişsel bir işleme tabi tutulmasıdır.

Yönergelerde buyurucu tarzda bir dil kullanılır ve içerisinde yönergeyi ifade eden kişinin niyetini, amacını gizler. Eğitim ortamında bu kişi ya öğretmen ya da ders kitabının yazarıdır ve yönerge vermekteki amacı ya öğrencinin çalışılan konuyla ilgili bir şey öğrenmesini sağlamak ya da değerlendirme yapmak, dolayısıyla da öğrencinin bilgisini ortaya koymasını, önceki bilgileri ile yeni edindiği bilgileri ilişkilendirmesini, pekiştirmesini sağlamaktır (Presse, 1999: 10).

Bu açıdan bakıldığında yönerge oluşturma/anlama sürecinin ne denli karmaşık olduğu görülmektedir. Herkesin aynı şekilde anlayıp, çözümleyebileceği ölçüde açık ve net bir yönerge oluşturmak ne denli güç ise okuyucu açısından da bir yönergeyi anlamak, özellikle çift anlamlı ifadeler içerdiğinde, o denli güç ve karmaşık bir uğraştır. Öğrencinin öğrenme süreci ancak ne yapacağını, kimin için, niçin ve nasıl yapacağını anladığında kolaylaşır.

2. Yabancı Dil Sınıflarında Yönergeler

Son yıllarda gerek öğrencilerin yönergeleri anlama, çözümleme konusunda yaşadıkları güçlükleri ortaya koyan, gerekse yönerge okuma becerisinin öğretimine yönelik çalışmaların sayısında bir artış gözlemlenmektedir (Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003; Zakhartchouk, 2001; Zakhartchouk, 2004; Bourgeois, 2006). Yabancı dil sınıflarında yönerge okuma konusunun önem arz etmesini iki nedene bağlayabiliriz. Birinci neden bizzat öğrencinin kendisi ile ilişkilidir. Öğrenciler genellikle örtük anlamların yer aldığı yönergelere karşı olumsuz bir tavır takınırlar, kendilerinden istenen işi anlamakta güçlük yaşarlar, yüzeysel bir okuma ile yetinirler ve öğretmenin anadilde açıklama yapmasını isterler ya da öğretmene sorular sorarak doğru anlayıp anlamadıklarını onaylatmak isterler.

İkinci neden ise özerk öğrenci yetiştirme ideolojisinin temelinde yatmaktadır. Özerklik teorisi temel alındığında öğrencilerin sessiz bir okumanın ardından yönergenin gerektirdiği işi yardım almadan yerine getirebilmeleri ve sorun çözmeyi bilmeleri gerekir (Zakhartchouk, 2004: 72). Oysaki yapılan uygulamalar, öğrencilerin yönerge okuma konusunda takındıkları tutumlar dikkate alındığında, eğitimin bu yönünün diğer temel dilsel becerilerin (okuma, anlama, dinleme, konuşma) dışında bırakıldığı ve kendiliğinden gelişmesi gereken bir beceri olarak algılandığı görülmektedir. Dil gelişimi ilerledikçe buna paralel olarak gelişeceği varsayılmaktadır. Metin okuma derslerinde öğretilen stratejiler elbette yönerge okuma konusunda öğrencilere katkı sağlayacaktır ancak yönergeler kullanılan dil ve ifade ediliş biçimleri açısından farklı stratejilerin öğretimi kadar dikkat toplama, değerlendirme ölçütleri hakkında akıl yürütme, üst bilişsel becerileri kullanma gibi çalışmaları da gerektirmektedir.

Öğretmen açısından baktığımızda ise ya öğrencilerin yabancı dil seviyesine, bilgisine duydukları güvensizlik ya da kendilerinin oluşturdukları yönergelerle duydukları güvensizlikten hareketle ve “öğrenci nasıl olsa anlamaz” düşüncesiyle, öğrencileri sorun çözmeye teşvik etmek yerine genelde yönergeleri açıklama yolunu tercih ettiklerini söyleyebiliriz. Bu açıklama ise çoğunlukla anadilde yapılmaktadır. Clanché'nin (1999:10) de çalışmasında belirttiği gibi yönergede yer alan örtük anlamları ne kadar çok açıklarsak sorunun o kadar çok büyümesine neden oluruz ve istenilen, beklenen sonucun tam tersi bir sonuca ulaşma olasılığı o kadar artar.

Yönerge okumada yaşanan güçlükler söz konusu olduğunda, genelde, kullanılan sözcükler ve ifade ediliş biçimleri akla gelir. Oysaki asıl sorun açık ya da örtük bir şekilde ifade edilmiş olan hedeflenen, öğrenciden beklenen işin anlaşılıp anlaşılmasından kaynaklanır. Dolayısıyla yönergeyi anlayıp

yerine getirme başarısı yönergeyi oluşturan ifadeyi sözcük sözcük anlamakla değil, öğrencinin öğrenme sürecine katkı sağlamak amacıyla kendisinden beklenen görevi anlayabilmesi ve yerine getirebilmesiyle doğru orantılıdır (Cauterman, 1997: 123). Zaten tek sorun yönergede kullanılan sözcüklerde ya da ifade ediliş biçiminde olsaydı en basit günlük sözcükler kullanılarak yazılan yönergelerde hiçbir sorun yaşanmaması beklenirdi. Alanda yapılan bazı araştırmalar bu saptamayı desteklemektedir. Calame-Gippet'nin (1999: 6) de belirttiği gibi ancak amacın, yapılacak işin açıkça ifade edildiği yönergelerde ifade sorunları ya da bilinmeyen sözcükler sorun olmaktan çıkar.

Yönergelerin kendine özgü bir dili vardır ve içerisinde istenilen, beklenen, yerine getirilmesi gereken bir görevi saklar. Yabancı dil eğitimi söz konusu olduğunda öğrenciler beklenen işi çözmeye çalışmak yerine anlamını bilmedikleri sözcüklere odaklanırlar ve o sözcüklerin tam karşılıklarını bilmedikleri takdirde hiçbir şey yapamayacaklarını düşünürler. Dolayısıyla da öğretmenden açıklama bekleme, sorular sorarak doğru anlayıp anlamadığını onaylatma gibi tutumlar sergilerler. Henüz öğrenmekte oldukları bir dille karşı karşıya oldukları için sürekli bir güvensizlik ve yanlış anlama endişesi yaşarlar (Warzée, 1992: 45).

Bir öğrenci bir alıştırmada, bir etkinlikte başarısız olduğunda yabancı dil öğretmenleri genellikle “dersi anlamadığı için yapamamış”, “konu ilgisini çekmemiş”, “yeterince akıl yürütmemiş” tarzında yargılarda bulunurlar. Aslında, genelde hatanın, başarısızlığın kaynağı yönergenin kendisidir. Öğrenci çoğunlukla dersi anlamadığı ya da dinlemediği için değil yönergeyi, yapması gereken şeyi anlamadığı için yanlış yapar.

Sonuç olarak, yönergelerin, öğrenciler açısından, ifade ediliş biçimlerinin yeterince net, açık, seçik olmadıkları, düzenleniş, sözdizimi ve sözcük dağarcığı açısından çeşitli güçlükleri barındırdıklarını söylemek mümkün. Bu bağlamda öğrencilerin yaşadıkları sorunları öğrenciden kaynaklanan sorunlar ve öğretmenden kaynaklanan sorunlar olmak üzere iki farklı boyutta ele almak gerekir.

3. Öğrencilerin Yaşadıkları Sorunlar ve Nedenleri

Yabancı dil öğrencilerinin eğitsel yönergeleri okurken karşılaştıkları sorunların kaynağını iki açıdan irdelemek mümkündür. Bu sorunlar öğretmenin oluşturduğu yönergelerden kaynaklanabileceği gibi bizzat öğrencilerin kendisinden de kaynaklanabilir.

3.1. Öğretmenden kaynaklanan sorunlar

Öncelikle öğretmen kullandığı sözcük ve kavramları oldukça dikkatli ve özenli seçmelidir. Aksi takdirde öğrenci gerçek anlamda bir anlama sorunuyla karşılaşacaktır. Öğretmen yönergede kullanacağı sözcük ve kavramları öğrencinin ön bilgisini, dil seviyesini dikkate alarak önceden tasarlamalıdır. Bunun yanı sıra öğrencinin yönergede yer alan sözcük ve kavramları doğru anlamlandırabilmesi için hangi konu üzerinde çalıştığını bilmesi ve yönergenin amacını keşfetmesi gerekir. Sözcük ve kavram kullanımı açısından kapasitesinin üstünde bir yönergeyle karşılaşan bir öğrenci doğal olarak sessiz kalmayı tercih edecek ve başkalarının cevap vermesini bekleyecektir (Descaves, 1992: 7 ; Lengagne, 2005: 5).

Öğretmenden kaynaklı ikinci bir güçlük türü yönergenin hedef ile tam ilişkilendirilememesi şeklinde tanımlanabilir. Zakhartchouk'un (2001: 180) da belirttiği gibi öğretmenin öncelikli hedefinin öğrencilerin yönergeye bağlı kalmaları mı yoksa doğru sonuca ulaşmaları mı olduğuna karara vermesi gerekir. Zira öğrenciler bazen yönergenin dışına çıkabilirler ama sonuç doğru ise hedefe ulaşılmış demektir. Aslında, öğretmenin doğru yönlendirilmiş hedefleri olursa ve ulaşmak istenen hedeflere yönelik olarak çok iyi hazırlanmış ve üzerinde iyi düşünülmüş yönergelerle hareket edebilirse bu öğretmenin de, öğrencinin de işini kolaylaştıracak ve her şey iki taraf için de açık ve anlaşılır hale gelecektir. Bunun sonucunda ise öğrenci yönergeleri anlamak için harcayacağı zaman ve enerjisini istenen işi, görevi yerine getirmek ve başarmak için harcayabilecektir.

Öğretmenin dikkat etmesi gereken bir başka nokta iç içe geçmiş, birden fazla iş gerektiren yönergelerden kaçınmaktır. Öğrenciler genelde bir yönergeyi nasıl ele alacaklarını bilmezken, bunu öğrenmemişken bir de onlara üst üste, karmaşık yönergeler vermek durumu daha da güç hale getirecektir. Birden çok iş gerektiren yönergeler genellikle öğrencilerin bir işi yaparken diğerini unutmalarına ve sonuçta başarısız olmalarına neden olur (Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003: 28). Zaten yabancı dil öğrencileri öğrendikleri dil karşısında bir tedirginlik, yanlış anlama, emin olamama gibi kaygılar taşırlar. Bir de karmaşık yönergeler vermek ve başarılı olmalarını beklemek bu kaygıyı daha da pekiştirecektir.

Bir diğer sorun ise yazılı yönergelerin okunmamasından kaynaklanır. Öğretmenler genellikle yazılı yönergeleri sözlü dile getirme yolunu benimserler. Bu da öğrencilerin yazılı yönergeleri dikkate almamasına, okuma alışkanlığı edinmemesine neden olur. Bu yönergeler aslında öğrencilere verilen çalışma yapıtlarında vardır ama öğretmen onları sözlü olarak sunduğu için öğrenci okuma, anlama,

çözümleme gereği duymaz. Hatta bazen önündeki çalışma yaprağında yazılı halde var olduğunun bile farkına varmaz (Descaves, 1992: 13).

Öğretmen öğrenci ile yapılacak iş arasında bir aracı rolünü üstlenir. Bu rol ve sorumluluk doğrultusunda öğrencilere yönergeler verir. Bu süreçte öğrencilerin işin kolaylaştıracak şekilde açıklayıcı yönergeler hazırlamaya, entelektüel kapasitelerini dikkate almaya ve en önemlisi yönergeleri okuyup anlama ve çözümlemeyi öğretmeyi de hedeflemesi gerektiğini unutmaması gerekir.

Öğretmenin yönerge hazırlarken bazı soruları sorması kendisine bu süreçte yardımcı olacaktır; niçin bu yönergeyi veriyorum? Amacım nedir? Bu yönerge yeterince açık mı? Ulaşılmak istenen hedefi yeterince açık ifade edebildim mi? Öğrenciler onlardan yapmalarını beklediğim çalışmayı anlayabilecekler mi? (Bourgeois, 2006: 12).

3.2. Öğrencinin kendisinden kaynaklanan sorunlar

Yönerge okuma konusu öğrenciler açısından ele alındığında farklı öğrenci tepkilerinin ve tutumlarının söz konusu olduğu söylenebilir. Bazı öğrenciler için yönerge okuma konusunun bir sorun teşkil etmediği söylenebilir. Sonuç bazen olumlu, bazen olumsuz olsa da kendilerinden yapmaları istenen etkinliği gerçekleştirdikleri dolayısıyla da hedeflenen işi anladıkları gözlemlenmektedir (Caumet, 2001: 10).

Bunun yanı sıra, yönergeleri tam okumadan etkinliği gerçekleştirme konusunda aceleci bir tutum sergileyen, anahtar sözcük ve kavramlara dikkat etmeyen, yönergeden yaklaşık bir anlam çıkarsamakla yetinen, dikkatsizlik nedeniyle art arda yapılması beklenen iş ve görevlerin bir kısmını unutan ya da okuduğu halde nereden başlayacağını ve nasıl yapacağını kestiremediği için eyleme geçemeyen öğrencilerin sayısının da yadsınamayacak boyutta olduğunu belirtmek gerekir.

Öğrencilerin yönergeler karşısında takındıkları tutumları tespit etmek amacıyla yapılan çalışmalar, basit yönergeler söz konusu olduğunda başarılı olduklarını ancak karmaşık yönergeler söz konusu olduğunda genellikle başarısız oldukları sonucunu ortaya koymaktadır. Çoğu öğrenci yönergelerin önemini bilincinde değildir ve yönergeyi okumanın bir işe yaramadığını, okumadan da istenen çalışmayı yapabileceklerini düşünürler. Bu nedenle de, yönergeyi dikkate almazlar, üzerinde düşünüp akıl yürütmezler (Descaves, 1992: 15; Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003: 17).

Öğrencilerde gözlemlenen bir diğer olumsuz tutum ise yüzeysel bir okuma ile yetindikleri yönündedir. Genellikle, yönergeyi okumanın yapacakları etkinliğin en önemli aşaması olduğunun bilincinde değiller. Yüzeysel bir okuma neticesinde yönergenin belirleyici öğelerini göz ardı ederler ve aslında gerek yönerge okuma sürecinin, gerekse etkinliği gerçekleştirme sürecinin daha karmaşık hale gelmesine neden olurlar. Bu yüzeysel okuma sonucunda, anahtar kavramlara, sözcüklere, soru sözcüklerine dikkat etmediği için öğrenci emin olmadığı bir anlamla hareket eder ve çabası hata ve başarısızlıkla sonuçlanır. Çoğunlukla da bambaşka bir yönergeden hareketle etkinliği gerçekleştirmiş izlenimi verir (Descaves, 1992: 15; Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003: 16; Caumet, 2001: 11).

Özellikle yabancı dil eğitimi söz konusu olduğunda zaman zaman işi kolaylaştırmak amacıyla yönergelerle birlikte model cümle ya da etkinliğin nasıl yapılacağını gösteren örnekler verilir. Amaç öğrencinin işini kolaylaştırmak, istenen, hedeflenen şeyi somut olarak görmelerini sağlamaktır. Ancak bu modellerin her zaman amacına ulaştığı söylenemez. Öğrenciler bu modelleri, örnekleri gördüklerinde geçmiş derslerdeki deneyimlerinden hareketle hemen çözümleyebileceklerini düşünürler. Bunları tanıdıklarını ve modele bakmanın yeterli olduğunu düşünürler. Bunun sonucunda da yönergeyi okuma, anlama, çözümlemeye çalışma ihtiyacı duymazlar. Bu süreci gereksiz bir çaba ve bir zaman kaybı olarak nitelendirirler. Oysaki öğretmenin bir yönergeyi model eşliğinde vermesinin nedeni, özellikle karmaşık ve güçlük düzeyi yüksek etkinliklerde, öğrencinin işini kolaylaştırmaktır. Fakat öğrenci yönergeyi yadsıdığına işini daha karmaşık bir hale getirmektedir ve kendi performansını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

Gözlemlenen bir diğer olumsuz öğrenci davranışı ise etkinliği planlama aşamasında karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Planlama aşaması bir etkinliği gerçekleştirme sürecinde yönergeyi okuma ve çözümlemeden sonra en önemli aşamadır. Zira doğru okuyup anlayan ve çalışmasını planlayan bir öğrenci zaten işin yarısını gerçekleştirmiş demektir. Uygulamada bu aşamada da sorun yaşandığını söylemek mümkündür. Caumet'nin (2001: 11) öğrencilerle yaptığı bir çalışma sonucunda belirttiği gibi öğrenciler bu aşamayı göz ardı etmekte ve belki de gerekliliğinin farkında bile değiller. Doğru yöntemi seçmeyi, etkinliği aşama aşama planlamayı, etkinliğe nereden başlayacaklarını kestiremezler. Kendilerine verilen süreyi yönetme konusunda da oldukça güçlük yaşadıklarını da söylemek mümkün. Genelde öğrenciler kendilerine tanınan sürenin yetersizliğinden şikâyet ederler. Yetersiz ya da olumsuz performanslarının nedenini sürenin yetersizliğinde ararlar. Gerçekte buradaki asıl sorun sürenin azlığı

değil, etkinliğin bir plan çerçevesinde gerçekleştirilmemesinden ya da doğru bir planlama yapılamamasından kaynaklanır. Bu sonuçta bize planlama aşamasının, özellikle de yabancı dilde yazma söz konusu olduğunda, ne denli önemli olduğunu ve çalıştırılması, öğretilmesi gereken bir aşama olduğunu göstermektedir (Yaiche et Mettoudi, 2003: 13). Plansız programsız yapılan bir işin sadece başlangıç noktası bellidir, izlenecek adımlar ve varılmak istenen sonuç belirsizdir. Bunun aksine bir plan çerçevesinde yapılan bir işin başlangıcı, gelişme aşamasında izlenecek süreç ve varılmak istenen hedef adım adım belirlenmiştir ve başarıya ulaşma olasılığı oldukça yüksektir. Öğrencilerin de etkinliği gerçekleştirirken bu bilinçle hareket etmeleri hem performanslarını destekleyecek hem de başarısızlık söz konusu olsa bile hatalarının kaynağını, nerede yanlış karar aldıklarını bulmalarını kolaylaştıracak, dolayısıyla da öz değerlendirme yapma fırsatı sunacaktır.

Yönergenin diğer metin türlerinden en temel farkı bir çalışmaya, göreve, eyleme yönlendirmek üzere oluşturulmuş olmasıdır. Bu yönüyle de öğrencilerin yapılacak işe odaklanmalarını, onu keşfetmelerini gerektirir. Ancak öğrenciler buna dikkat etmemekte ve kendilerinden beklenen eylemi zihinlerinde tasarlamakta güçlük çekmektedirler. Aynı zamanda, özellikle karmaşık yönergeler karşısında, yönergenin baş tarafına o denli odaklanırlar ki sonunu unuturlar. Yönergeyi yeniden okumak gibi bir alışkanlık edinmedikleri için de etkinlik hedefine ulaşmaz, kazandırılmak istenen dilsel edinim gerçekleşmez.

Caumet (2001: 11) stajyer öğretmen olarak yaptığı gözlem sonucunda öğrencilerde bir öz güven eksikliğinden bahseder. Bu eksiklik, özellikle yabancı dil sınıflarında, sıkça karşılaşılan bir sorundur. Öğrenciler genellikle okuyup anlasalar da hep emin olma, doğrulatma ihtiyacı duyarlar. Henüz öğrenme sürecinin devam ettiği bir dilde yanlış anlama korkusunu sıkça yaşarlar.

Dikkatsizlikte bir başka sorun olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Yönergeyi okuma ya da etkinliği gerçekleştirme aşamasında öğrencinin dikkatinin dağılması da performansını olumsuz yönde etkiler. Dikkati dağılan öğrenci asıl yönergede yer alan verileri unutur, zihninde yaklaşık anlamda başka bir yönerge oluşturur ve dolayısıyla hedeflenen çalışmanın sadece bir kısmını yapar, gerçek performansının altında bir performans ortaya koyar.

Eğitim/öğretim ile ilgili olan herkes bilir ki öğrencilerin başarısı, onların yönergeleri irdeleme, ele alış biçimleri ile doğrudan ilişkilidir. Öğrenci kendisinden beklenen performansın ne olduğunu anlamadığında doğal olarak sorulan sorulara da cevap veremeyecektir. Lengagne 2005 yılında çocuklarla anadilde yaptığı bir çalışmada yönergeyi nasıl ele alacaklarını bilmedikleri, bir yaklaşımlarının olmadığı sonucuna varmıştır. Bu durumun yabancı dil sınıfları içinde geçerli olduğunu söylemek gerekir. Yanlış bir okuma tekniğiyle hareket etmek anlamaya bir engel teşkil etmektedir. Yönerge okumak, devamında bir şey yapmak için okumak, ne yapacağını, nasıl yapacağını anlamak için, eyleme geçmek için okumaktır. Okuma edimi bir hedef değil bir işi gerçekleştirmek için başvuru bir araçtır.

Kısacası öğretmen ve öğrencilerin yetersiz bilgi ya da olumsuz tutum ve davranışlarına bağlı olarak dil sınıflarında yönerge anlama, çözümleme, irdeleme konusunda yaşanan sorunlar ve olumsuz sonuçlar yönerge konusunun eğitim/ öğretimdeki yeri ve öneminin sorgulanması ve yeniden ele alınması gerektiğini açıkça ortaya koymaktadır. Öğrenci başarısının bir sınavla not üzerinden değerlendirildiği ülkemizde bu konu daha da önem arz etmektedir. Sınav sırasında öğrencinin yönergeyi anlayamaması başarısız olmasına neden olabilir ancak yönergeyi anlama başarısının ölçütü olmamalıdır.

SONUÇ

Yabancı dil sınıflarında dil öğretimi çerçevesinde verilen yazılı yönergeleri okuma anlamlandırma aşamasında öğrenciler birçok sorunla karşılaşır. Bu sorunları söz dizimini çözümleyememe, sözcük dağılımını tanıma, anlamlandırma sorunları ve söylemsel belirtileri ayırt edememe şeklinde sıralayabiliriz. Sınıfta kullanılan yönergeleri bu açıdan değerlendirdiğimizde, genellikle uzun ve karmaşık yönergeler kullanıldığını, öğrencilerin yapılacak etkinliğe yoğunlaşmaktan çok yönergeyi anlamak için çaba ve zaman harcamak zorunda kaldıklarını ve bu durumun başarılarını olumsuz yönde etkilediğini söyleyebiliriz. Buradan da anlaşılacağı üzere yönerge hazırlama aşamasında öğretmene büyük bir rol ve sorumluluk düşmektedir.

Öğrencilerin yaşadıkları sorunların bir diğer nedeni ise zaman içerisinde özellikle yazılı yönergelere karşı geliştirdikleri olumsuz tutum ve davranışlardır. Zamanla öğrenciler, başarısızlıkları karşısında, yönergeyi anlamak için boş bir çaba içine girdiklerini düşünerek doğrudan öğretmene sormayı alışkanlık haline getirebilirler. Bazen okudukları halde emin olamazlar ve onaylatmak isterler. Bazen de, nerelere

dikkat etmek gerektiğini bilmedikleri dolayısıyla da bir yöntem ya da strateji ile hareket etmedikleri için sıradan bir okuma gerçekleştirirler ve gerçek performanslarını ortaya koyamazlar.

Bu durumda kuşkusuz öğretmenlerin olduğu kadar öğrencilerin de, yönerge okumanın özel bir okuma türü, işlevsel ve eyleme geçmek üzere yapılan bir okuma olduğunun bilincine varmaları gerekir. Bu bilinçle hareket edildiğinde öğrenciler, öğretmenin öğretim süreci boyunca verdiği yönergelerin gerçek anlamını, işlevini ve amacını keşfetmeden etkinliği yapmaya başlamamaları gerektiğini anlayacaklardır. Ancak, hedefe yönelik bir okuma alışkanlığı edinmemiş, bu yönde herhangi bir eğitim almamış öğrencilerin bu yöntemi benimsemeleri ve uygulamaya geçirmeleri beklenemez. Dolayısıyla da yönerge metnini çözümlemeye yönelik sınıf içi yöntem ve uygulama çalışmalarının öğretmen tarafından planlanması ve öğretim programına dâhil edilmesi gerekir. Öğrencinin bir yönerge içerisinde anlamaya yardımcı olacak verileri, yapılması gereken işi belirleyebilmesi, temel bilgiler ile yan bilgileri ayırt edebilmesi gerekir. Bu süreç, düşünüldüğü gibi, kendiliğinden gelişmez. Yabancı dilde metin okuma becerisi geliştikçe yönerge okuma konusunda da ilerleme kaydedeceklerdir gibi bir beklenti sonuçsuz kalacaktır. Bir becerinin gelişmesi her şeyden önce yöntem, teknik ve stratejiler gerektirir. Belli bir yöntem ve bilinç olmaksızın bir eylemi tekrar etmek başarıyı garanti altına almaz. Neyi, neden ve nasıl yaptığımızı bildiğimizde ve bilgilerimizi transfer edebildiğimizde ancak sorun çözmeyi ve başa çıkmayı öğreniriz. Ancak ülkemizde yabancı dil eğitim/öğretimin diğer alanlarıyla ilgili birçok çalışma ve öğrenci performansını artırmaya yönelik birçok araştırma yapılırken bu yönü yadsınmıştır. Öğrenci bazen kendi kaderiyle baş başa bırakılmış, bazen de tembellik, dikkatsizlik ve motivasyonsuzlukla suçlanmıştır. Öğretmen ise çözümü yazılı yönergeyi ya sözlü olarak açıklamakta ya da anadilde karşılığını vermekte bulmuştur.

Bir yabancı dil öğretmenin öncelikli hedefi verdiği etkinlikleri başarıyla sonuçlandırabilmesi için öğrencilerini etkinliğin gerekli kıldığı bir dizi işlemi bilinçli bir şekilde uygulama konusunda yetkin hale getirmektir. Eğer öğretmen kapalı bir yönerge oluşturuyorsa bunu kontrol ve öğretim amaçlı kullanıyor demektir. Fakat öğretimin gerçekleşebilmesi için de öğrencisini öğrenim süreci boyunca desteklemeli, yönerge çözümleme konusunda yaşadığı sorunları, sıkıntıyı ve endişeyi yönetmeyi, sorun çözme stratejileri geliştirme ve uygulamayı öğretmelidir.

İletişimsel yöntemlerin gelişimiyle gündeme gelen otonom öğrenci kavramı son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalarla eğitim/öğretim ortamında kendinden sıkça söz ettirir olmuştur. Bu yaklaşımın en temel özelliği öğretmene yüklediği yol göstericilik görevidir. Öğretmen beklenen öğrencilerine teknik ve stratejiler edindirerek bağımsız hareket edebilmesini ve kendi kendine de öğrenebilmesini sağlamaktır. Bu süreç uzun soluklu bir süreçtir. Yönergeleri basitleştirmek, açıklamak, temel sözcükleri kullanarak ifade etmek, bölümlene yoluna gitmek kısa vadede olumlu sonuçlar ortaya koysa da uzun vadede öğrencilerin karşılaştıkları güçlük ve sorunlara karşı olumlu tutum geliştirmelerine engel olur.

Sonuç olarak yabancı dil sınıflarında, yönergeler öğretmen ile öğrenci arasında bir aracı görevini görür ve dolayısıyla da oldukça önem arz eder. Ancak öğrencilerin yaşadıkları güçlükler karşısında yönerge yazma konusunda belli tedbirlere başvurma (daha basit ve anlaşılır bir dille yazmak, daha çok açıklama vermek gibi) sorunu kalıcı bir şekilde çözmeye yeterli olmayacağı açıktır. Yapılması gereken bir yöntem ve program çerçevesinde öğrencileri çalıştırmaktır. Bir yöntem öğrenen öğrenci ise strateji kullanmayı, problem çözmeyi ve çözüm yolları geliştirmeyi de öğrenir. Öğretim yılı boyunca, belki de öğretimin hemen başında, birkaç dersi böyle bir çalışmaya ayırmak uygun olacaktır. Hatta öğretmenlerin bu yönde bir hizmet içi eğitim almalarının uygun olacağı da söylenebilir.

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Yabancı Dil Öğrencilerine Yönerge Okumayı Öğretmek Mümkün Müdür?

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ÖZET

Hayatımızın her alanında karşımıza çıkan yönergeler, eğitim hayatının her aşamasında ve sürecinde de yerini almaktadır. İlkokuldan üniversite öğrenimine ve hatta daha sonrasına kadar yönerge kullanılmayan alan neredeyse yok gibidir. Yönerge tipi metinleri okumak diğer metin türlerine göre biraz daha farklıdır, burada amaç başlı başına okuma yapmak değil, harekete ve eyleme yönelmektir. Bu nedenle yönergeleri anlamak, verilen işi doğru bir şekilde gerçekleştirebilmek için oldukça önemlidir. Özellikle yabancı dil sınıflarında bu iş daha da karmaşık ve zor olmaktadır. Çünkü bu tür bir metni okumanın yanı sıra bir de yabancı dilde okuduğunu anlama becerisi devreye girmektedir. Yapılan çalışmalar da göstermektedir ki öğrencilerin çoğu yönergeleri okumakta ve anlamakta çeşitli zorluklar yaşamaktadır. Bu zorlukların nedenleri çok çeşitli olabilirken, bazıları yönergenin kendisinden ve yapısından; bazıları öğrencinin bilgi, beceri ve tutumundan; bazıları ise doğru yöntem ve teknikleri bilmemekten kaynaklanmaktadır. Yönergelerin öğrencilerin okul başarısını doğrudan etkilediği ve onların özerkliklerinde oldukça etkili olduğu düşünüldüğünde bu soruna bir çözüm getirmek kaçınılmaz görülmektedir. Öğrencilerin yönergeleri okumalarını ve anlamalarını kolaylaştırmak için hem öğretmenlere hem de öğrencilere bazı görevler düşmektedir. Fakat unutulmaması gereken nokta her zaman mükemmel yönergelerle karşılaşmamızın mümkün olmadığıdır. Bu nedenle bu çalışmada yönergelerin yazılış şekline odaklanmaktan ziyade öğrencilerin okuma şekli üzerine odaklanmanın gerekliliği vurgulanmaktadır. Günümüzde beklenen öğrencilerin özerk ve bağımsız olabilmeleri, kendi kendilerine ve yaşam boyu öğrenmeyi ilke edinmeleri olduğu için yönergeler karşısında da bu özerkliği sağlamak önemlidir. Öğrencilerin kendi başlarına yönergeleri okumaları ve anlamaları için öncelikle öğrencilere ve öğretmenlere bu yönerge okuma bilinci kazandırılmalıdır. Bunun için ise yapılması gereken öğrencilerin yönergeler üzerinde düşünmesini ve sorgulamasını sağlamak, çeşitli etkinliklerle onlara yol göstermektir. Bu araştırmada öncelikle yönergelerin hayatımızdaki yeri ve önemi, daha sonra öğretmen ve öğrencilere düşen sorumluluklar tartışılmış, son olarak da eğitmenlere bu konuda etkili olabilecek bazı etkinlikler önerilmiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: yabancı dil öğretimi, yönerge, otonomi, yaşam boyu öğrenme, etkinlik örnekleri